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ABSTRACT

This document is a presentation of primary and secondary information collected by the President's Commission on Olympic Sports and used as the basis for their recommendations on improving U.S. performance capabilities in international competition. The document is divided into three sections: (1) a sport-by-sport analysis of thirty Olympic sports, presenting a general overview, organization, resources, training and development, competition standards, and summary and recommendations; (2) an examination of thirteen major multi-sport organizations; and (3) miscellaneous studies of U.S. relationships with the international sports community, of amateur athletics financing, and of the handicapped in sports. The sport-by-sport analysis examines: archery, basketball, biathlon, bobsled, boxing, canoeing/kayaking, cycling, diving, equestrian sports, fencing, field hockey, figure skating, gymnastics, ice hockey, judo, luge, pentathlon, rowing, shooting, skiing, soccer, speed skating, swimming, team handball, track and field, volleyball, water polo, weightlifting, wrestling, yachting. (MJB)

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The Final Report of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports 1975-1977

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Volume II Findings of Fact and Supporting Material

SP 011 888

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The Final Report
# of the
President's Commission
on
Olympic Sports

January, 1977
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Volume II

Findings of Fact
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METHODOLOGY

The Executive Order establishing this Commission in June 1975 was the basis for its data collection and analysis. Members of the Commission were chosen for their background in sports and because they were knowledgeable but unaligned with any of the organizations involved. In addition, several members of the Commission staff, including one former Olympian, had firsthand experience as athletes.

With this background, the Commission set out to collect primary and secondary data from which, first, to draw basic conclusions about the present state of amateur sports and, second, to make recommendations for improving amateur sports organization and financing. Primary data were collected through interviews, both in person and by telephone, with athletes, coaches, officials and administrators. Members of the Commission and its staff conducted five public hearings and held approximately 40 consulting group meetings on Olympic sports and associated topics, such as financing amateur sports.

In addition, Commissioners and staff members attended annual meetings, conventions, national championships, Olympic Trials, training camps, the Pan American Games of 1975 and the Winter and Summer Olympic Games of 1976. These firsthand observations helped the Commission to focus on the complex issues facing our sports system today before making its final recommendations.

Secondary data were collected through analysis of reports of past commissions and studies on sports, past legislative attempts in this area, media reports and current research. The Commission also studied national and international rules of competition and amateurism in Olympic sports, as well as the national sports systems in other countries.

The material presented in this volume provides the basis for the major conclusions and recommendations contained in Volume I. The Commission believes that the methods of research employed brought to light the major issues and suggested appropriate solutions. Thus, we offer the results of our deliberations as a reasonable point of departure for the advancement of the U. S. amateur sports system.

A. SPORT-BY-SPORT ANALYSES

ARCHERY

Henry the Eighth, who complained of the expense of keeping Anne Boleyn in archery equipment, eventually solved the matter by having his archer-wife beheaded, and that's been pretty much the tone of official policy ever since.

Examine the case of Ed Eliason, a carpenter from Seattle and a member of the 1972 U.S. Olympic archery team. Eliason sold his house in order to go to the 1976 Olympic Trials in Oxford, Ohio. Once there, he failed to make the team. "I said to myself there's no point in driving back across the country because the house is gone." So Eliason, 38 and with a wife and two kids to feed, accepted the offer of Bear Archery Company to be one of its district sales representatives. Relieved of financial worry, Eliason promptly won the National Field Archery Championships, a hunting-oriented competition not contested in the Olympics.

The observer might be tempted to fault Eliason for being slow. Why had he not combined his business and avocation sooner? The reason: official confusion over what kind of archery-related job or help an amateur can accept. At one time Eliason was on the Board of Directors of the National Archery Association (NAA)—but had to relinquish the position because neither he nor NAA could afford to pay his way to meetings — so no one might be expected to have a better grasp of the rules. But he was stumped. "Ask what is acceptable to the many different bodies in archery — NAA, the USOC, FITA (Federation Internationale de Tir a l'Arc)—and you get a different answer from each. I didn't know if I could shoot in archery exhibitions in which my expenses were paid; I didn't know if I could work in any capacity with an archery company. According to NAA rules, even accepting help from one's parents could be considered illegal. I still don't know whether working for an archery firm will disqualify me from amateur competition."

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

The Olympic archery program in this country is struggling, underexposed, and phenomenally successful. Target archers encounter difficulties in almost every aspect of the sport, yet the U. S. has won more medals and championships than any other country. Plagued by a critical shortage of funds, the assorted organizations conducting programs in archery are hard-pressed to provide the competitive opportunities and developmental activities needed for expansion of the sport. This lack of revenue affects all aspects of the archery effort, from organization and management to facilities to participation at the local, regional, national, and international levels.

There are several types of archers: Olympic target archers, field archers, and bow hunters. These separate interests are served, for the most part, by different groups. This situation tends to divide rather than strengthen the sport. The existence of many groups is not a problem in itself, as they are responding to the disparate needs of the individuals involved in archery. However, although the various groups all desire to promote archery, there is little coordination among them. Rather, programs and activities are duplicated, philosophies and policies contradict each other, communication is poor, and conflicting rules confuse and often restrict those wishing to participate in more than one aspect of archery. Development suffers.

Other major factors inhibiting the growth of archery include a lack of effective promotional efforts and a shortage of adequate indoor and outdoor facilities for instruction and competition. Both situations severely limit exposure of the sport and are closely related to other problems currently plaguing it. It is indeed a tribute to the energy and dedication of the small core of involved administrators, coaches, officials and talented athletes that this country does so well internationally.

Events in International Competition

Archery was part of the Olympic program at the turn of the century but was discontinued after 1920; nevertheless, the sport continued to flourish. In the 1972 Munich Games one target event for men and one for women were re-introduced. Both competitions take place simultaneously over a four-day period. Each event consists of two rounds and a total of 288 arrows. In each round men shoot 36 arrows from each of four distances: 90m, 70m, 50m, and 30m; women shoot from 70m, 60m, 50m, and 30m.

A maximum of four people, two men and two women, may qualify to represent a country at the Olympic Games. Teams of six were allowed in 1972, but the IOC reduced the number of athletes for 1976.

History of World Ranking

The United States has participated regularly in the World Archery Championships since 1933, winning more medals over the years than any other country. United States archers also have dominated the Championships of the Americas which began in the early 1970s as a combination of the Ambassador's Cup competition (between the United States and Canada) and U.S. versus Mexico meets.

Since 1920 the U.S. is the only country which has won an Olympic Gold Medal in archery, taking Golds in both the men's and women's events in both 1972 and 1976. In addition to winning the Gold, U.S. archers finished fifth in both events in Munich and fourth (men) and seventh (women) in Montreal.

Even though the U.S. continues to perform well in international tournaments, competition from foreign athletes is steadily increasing. As other countries develop their archery programs and manufacture better quality equipment, the United States' position as world leader will undergo continued challenge, particularly from the Eastern European countries, Japan, Italy, Korea, Finland, and Sweden.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The national governing body (NGB) for U.S. archery is the National Archery Association (NAA), first organized in 1879. The international governing body is the Federation Internationale de Tir a l'Arc (FITA) which was established in 1931, with NAA affiliation granted in 1932.

A nine-person Board of Governors controls and manages NAA activities, policies, and property. All NAA members in good standing are eligible to vote in the general election, at the Association's annual meeting, held in conjunction with the National Tournament. Three Board members are elected from each NAA region — Atlantic, Central and Pacific — to serve staggered three-year terms. The Board meets twice a year, in January and August. Board members pay their own expenses to attend.

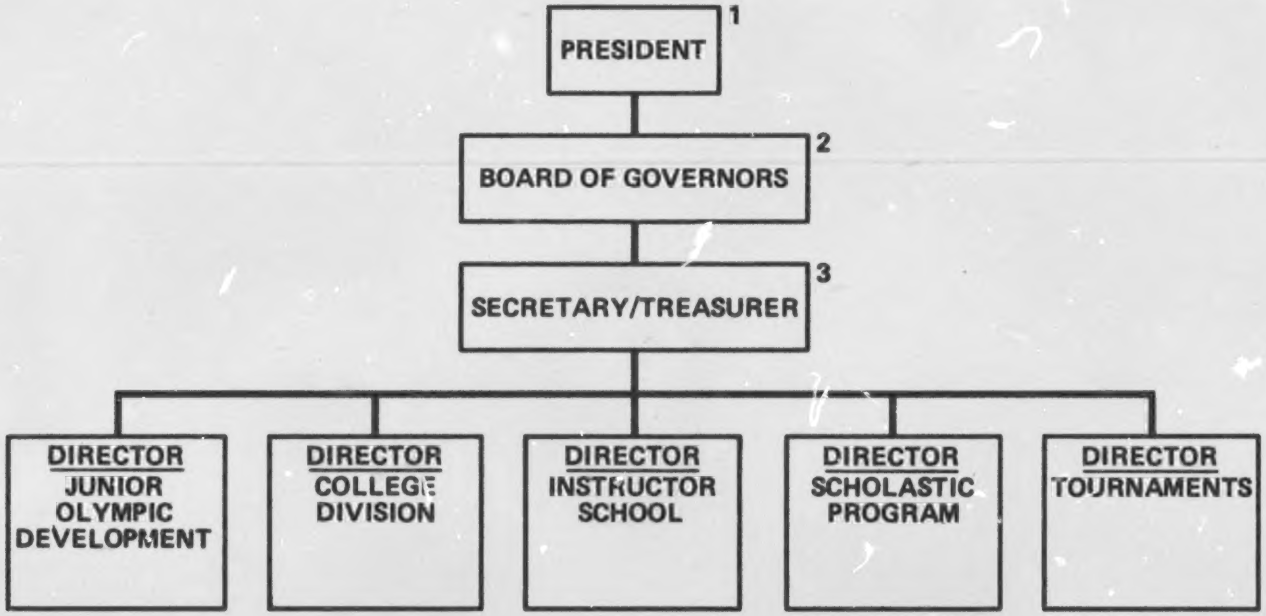
The Board of Governors elects the Chairman, who also serves as NAA President, and the Vice Chairman of the Board who acts as the Vice President. The Tournament Director, Executive Secretary, and Treasurer are non-voting members of the Board. The Tournament Director may be selected by local members from the vicinity of the next annual competition, but must be approved by the Board of Governors. The Director's term ends with the tournament. The Executive Secretary and Treasurer are appointed by the Board. Both positions may be held by a single individual who serves an indeterminate length of time at a salary decided upon by the Board.

The Chairman of the Board, with Board approval, appoints all committee chairmen (except for the Tournament Director). NAA members may serve on more than one committee, and the appointed chairman of a committee, with Board consent, may in turn appoint any or all members to that committee. The Tournament Committee is appointed for each annual event by the chosen Tournament Director with the approval of the Board Chairman.

NAA has two major divisions: amateur and professional. Both are under the jurisdiction of the NAA Board of Governors which makes certain that the rules and regulations of competition and eligibility for each division are congruent with international and Olympic rules. The majority of NAA's programs focus on archers in the amateur division.

NAA membership is approximately 4,000 individuals and 300 clubs as of mid-1976. However, it is estimated that there are tens of thousands of recreational archers in this country, as well as an estimated two million bow hunters, most of whom benefit directly or indirectly from various NAA activities. The dues structure for NAA members is as follows: individual: $5 per year; family (husband and wife): $6 per year, plus $1 per dependent under 18 years; junior (under 18 years): $4 per year when paying dues as an individual; club: $10 per year; regional or state association: $20 per year; and regional or state association with affiliated status: $10 per year. It should be noted that a person's membership in an NAA member organization does not automatically give him/her individual membership in NAA itself.

ORGANIZATION CHART
OF THE
NATIONAL ARCHERY ASSOCIATION OF THE U.S.



PRESIDENT 1

BOARD OF GOVERNORS 2

SECRETARY/TREASURER 3

DIRECTOR JUNIOR OLYMPIC DEVELOPMENT

DIRECTOR COLLEGE DIVISION

DIRECTOR INSTRUCTOR SCHOOL

DIRECTOR SCHOLASTIC PROGRAM

DIRECTOR TOURNAMENTS

1 (ELECTED BY BOARD FROM BOARD MEMBERS)

2 (9 MEMBERS, ELECTED TO 3-YEAR TERM BY MEMBERSHIP)

3 (ONLY PAID FULL TIME EMPLOYEE)

NAA makes no specific provision to ensure athlete representation per se on the Board of Governors or in the Committees. However, athletes have from time to time served in these capacities.

NAA's primary goal is to promote all forms of archery, including target, field, and bowhunting in both the instinctive (using no bow sights) and freestyle (using a bow sight) method of shooting. NAA promotes participation in the sport by supporting various domestic development programs and encouraging national and international competition in field as well as Olympic-style target archery. NAA services include:

—Maintaining a classification system and presenting awards to those reaching each level of proficiency;

—Publishing dates and results of affiliated tournaments;

—Publishing *Archery World* magazine;

—Sending out information regarding formation of clubs and providing tournament handbooks for those interested in sponsoring tournaments; and

—Setting safety rules for tournaments and standardizing tournament procedures and rounds to permit comparison of scores.

Other Major Organizations

Several other groups are involved in the development and promotion of archery although the emphasis differs in each. The major groups include the National Field Archery Association (NFAA), the Professional Archery Association (PAA), the American Archery Council (AAC), and the Archery Manufacturers Organization (AMO).

NFAA was formed in 1939 as a splinter group of NAA. The field archers, with NAA help, established their own organization in order to develop games and promote shooting styles different from those of the target archers (target archers shoot from formal rows at circular targets; field archers walk a course, shooting at animal-shaped targets). The relationship between NFAA and NAA is amiable but distant. There are substantial differences in equipment and amateur eligibility standards: NFAA is not oriented toward international competition and is therefore relatively unconcerned about international standards. However, NFAA is a Group E member of the U.S. Olympic Committee (USOC).[1]

NFAA has no restrictions on bows or sights, while FITA and NAA have explicit regulations on permissible equipment. NFAA emphasizes recreation and hunting rather than formal competition, so it is the responsibility of NAA to provide sponsorship for internationally recognized field archery tournaments.

Structurally, NFAA is an association of independent state organizations. These affiliates develop their own programs along the general guidelines established by the national body. The organization's total membership is approximately 22,000 individuals. Regular membership dues are $10 annually and $5 per year for bowhunters.

NFAA affairs are directed by its 13 officers: the President, Vice President, Past President, Bowhunting Chairman, Executive Secretary, and eight Board of Directors Councilmen representing eight NFAA geographic sections. Policy is determined by the Board of Directors, delegates to which are elected by members from affiliated organizations in the 50 states.

The national organization annually sponsors eight major sectional tournaments and one major national tournament. NFAA also conducts a program for instructor certification and master-coach certification in field archery as well as a plan for education and certification of bowhunters. In addition, NFAA has an achievement award program reflecting growth of proficiency in the sport. This program also helps classify archers for purposes of competition.

The Professional Archery Association (PAA) was formed in 1961, and in 1976 numbered approximately 300 members who compete for cash prizes or perform in exhibitions for compensation. PAA conducts annual indoor and outdoor tournaments, but at present there is relatively little money to be won in professional archery. First place prizes range from $50 to $5,000.

Professional archers compete among themselves under rules different from those of NAA or FITA. However, PAA uses those organizations' rules when shooting with amateurs in competitions sponsored by NAA or FITA.

The American Archery Council (AAC) was formed in 1965. With representatives from all national archery groups and the archery industry, the council is the only organization whose primary objective is to bring the sport's many diverse groups together. Its aim is to coordinate activities and resources. AAC is the channel through which the Archery Manufacturers Organization (AMO) funds a grass-roots program affiliated with the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER) and known as the Outdoor Education Project in Archery. The project's theme is "Immediate Participation and Immediate Success," and it concentrates on providing basic instruction to large groups of school children.

The Archery Manufacturers Organization (AMO) is a group of firms which have joined to form a code of ethics in the manufacture and distribution of archery equipment. AMO has developed equipment standards and financially supports recreational opportunities, assists in U. S. national team activities, and promotes the design of safe facilities. However, because confusion exists regarding what types of financial assistance amateur archers may receive, some sponsorship by manufacturers is curtailed. Also unclear are the advertising benefits an archery equipment manufacturer may derive from assisting the archery program or an individual athlete. Nevertheless, companies give thousands of dollars to the sport anonymously. There are indications that many more would be willing to do likewise if the regulations were clarified.

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[1] See the USOC report in Volume II for a description of the various USOC groups and membership requirements.

Most collegiate archery is conducted on an intramural or club level. No college organization hosts a national archery championship. In the high schools the situation is similar. Good programs are few and far between. Most developmental and competitive opportunities for high school age archers are provided by NAA's Junior Olympic Archery Development program (JOAD), supplemented by AAHPER's activities in the recreation area.

RESOURCES

Personnel

NAA's one paid administrator, the Secretary-Treasurer, is appointed by the Board of Directors, draws an $8,000 salary, conducts all internal correspondence and keeps all financial and Board records.

NAA is trying to promote an instructor-certification program through clinics and workshops run by experienced volunteer archers. Instructors certified to teach at the advanced levels are few, in part because there is more demand for elementary teachers. Although on record as deploring policies which do not require physical educators to learn to teach archery, NAA currently is not emphasizing its programs to give the sport wider exposure among P.E. teachers.

Facilities/Equipment

Facilities requirements are easily satisfied by an outdoor area at least 110m long. Indoors, archers must have a shooting area at least 25m long. Most gymnasiums serve well. The major problems are those of availability and access. The same fields which are needed by archers also are coveted by soccer, football and field hockey players.

Equipment must include bows, which cost between $35 and $200 and are generally of laminated, recurved wood and fiberglass. Arrows, of wood, fiberglass and aluminum, cost $10-$45 per dozen. Arm guards, finger tabs and other protective accessories are $4 or $5. Target stands, mats and paper target faces total less than $50.

Finance

NAA's operating budget of approximately $75,000 is generated from membership dues, entry and spectator fees at national tournaments, registration fees in Junior Olympic programs, private donations and spotty contributions from the archery industry. Expenses of the national governing body include the Secretary-Treasurers' salary, printing costs of *Archery World* and other administrative costs, the hosting of national tournaments, team travel expenses, and the funding of developmental and promotional activities for athletes and coaches.

From 1971-1975 NAA showed very little real financial growth, particularly when contributions from the USOC are subtracted from the total. The apparent increase in NAA income from 1971-1975 is due to assistance from USOC team development and preparation grants provided just prior to the Olympic year.

The USOC contributes approximately $10,000 per year (paid on a voucher basis, whereby the USOC Archery Games Committee reimburses NAA for expenses incurred) for specific activities. USOC funds are used primarily for the Junior Olympic Archery Development program and for coaching and education programs. However, in the year preceding the Olympics USOC funds are used to assist the team.

DEVELOPMENT

Several million Americans are bowhunters or field archers, but only several thousand are target archers. Target shooting holds little attraction for bowhunters, so the transfer of participants from one aspect of the sport to the other is minimal. Schools have not promoted archery, so most individuals on the national archery teams have been developed primarily through clubs and a few college programs. NAA sanctions one All-American Collegiate Archery Team for men and women, with men and women qualifying based on different standards.

Most target archers are currently in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Arizona and California where the best coaches and those most involved with the sport are located.

Barriers to development are many. Finances, a major obstacle for most amateur athletes, is an extreme problem for archers. Assistance, when provided, is minimal even to the top archers. Almost all pay their own expenses for everything. In addition, the contradictions in amateur eligibility codes leave many potential archers unsure of what they may and may not do to advance their career (see Competition —Rules and Standards).

Lack of publicity is also an obstacle. The popular perception of archery as dangerous is often cited in explanation of why school fields and gyms are denied to archers.

There are several grass-roots programs, including those of the non-Olympic-oriented NFAA, but these groups are not coordinated. The NAA sponsors a Junior Olympic Archery Development Program (JOAD); and the AAC and AAHPER conduct the Outdoor Education Project in Archery.

Athlete Development

Archers, for the most part, train by shooting. Some do work with weights to strengthen the upper body and some run to keep generaly fit, but major improvement comes through good instruction and practice. Thus, the JOAD program is based on providing incentives to improve and it does so by awarding patches for high scores. Numerous groups, including schools, clubs, and colleges, sponsor regional and national competitions for developing national-class archers.

Coaches Development

There are few well-qualified coaches for archers, even fewer for elite athletes. As mentioned, NAA is beginning its Instructor Certification Program. The Outdoor Education Project in Archery also includes a basic course for P.E. teachers and recreation directors involved in large group teaching.

Officials Development

No formal certification procedure or formal training program for officials is now in operation.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

NAA rules and standards generally are in accord with those of FITA. However, there are substantial differences between NAA rules and those of NFAA (the field archers). The most important ones involve eligibility, but there are also differences in some rules of competition as well as in equipment restrictions. In NFAA rules, there are three classifications: amateur, professional and open (competing for limited prizes). Under FITA rules, however, members of the open category are considered professional. There have been cases in which this was not explained to open class archers and they subsequently lost the right to enter international competition.

Various organizations have conflicting competitive rules as well. Some require shooters to straddle the firing line; others require an archer to stand behind it. Under FITA rules an arrow must touch the scoring line on the target while NFAA rules say the arrow must cut the line.

NAA regulations describe permissible expenses: expenditures for room and board may not exceed $20 per day. This provision has no precedent in either IOC or FITA rules and in fact, when queried as to the reasons for establishing a ceiling on reimbursement for expenses incurred, NAA cited a FITA regulation[2] which actually refers to the value of trophies or prizes offered at tournaments, not to the athlete per diem allowed. This NAA rule is scheduled for consideration and potential revision at the next annual NAA Board of Governors meeting.

Domestic Competition

NAA has five divisions for competitive purposes: men, women, intermediate boys and girls (under 18), junior boys and girls (under 15), and cadet or beginner boys and girls (under 12).

NAA-sponsored competitions include:

—The annual National Championship Tournaments, target and field, open to members only;

—The Indoor Winter League Tournament;

—An Intercollegiate Mail Match;

—An Interscholastic Meet;

—A Nationwide Flight Shoot; (shooting arrows for distance)

—The U. S. team tryouts which select a women's and men's team to represent the U. S. in international and Olympic Competition;

—The Championships of the Americas;

—Selection of an All-American Collegiate Archery Team, for men and women; and

—The U. S. Intercollegiate Championship Tournament.

With the exceptions of the National Championship Tournament and international tournaments, all matches are postal or mail matches shot on the home ranges of the competing clubs, with scores mailed in to NAA. Medals, trophies, and certificates are awarded for all mail matches as well as for the Annual National Championship Tournament.

NFAA conducts eight subsectional tournaments and one major national tournament each year in field archery.

International Competition

In addition to the Olympics, several other major archery competitions are held at the international level. The Biennial World Target Championships and the World Field Championships are held in alternating years. The Championship of the Americas, which alternates between field and target competition opposite to the World Championships that year, are held annually. Invitational tournaments are held by various countries but not on a regular basis.

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[2] Article 227, "Titres D' Eligible a C.I.O. Code D' Admission" (b).

Team Selection

In the most recent quadrennial, the NAA policy for international qualification below the Olympic level was based on only one qualifying score. For Olympic competition, qualifying meets must be registered and sanctioned by NAA, as is the case for any NGB recognized by FITA.

Archers who achieve at least four qualifying scores during the previous year may enter the Olympic trials. At the 1976 Championship/Olympic Trials the youngest qualifier was 12 years old and the oldest was in his 60s.

There is no limit to the number of entries in the trials as long as each competitor has properly qualified. The final Olympic team is composed of two men and two women while eight athletes make up the national team for international competition in non-Olympic years.

NATIONAL ARCHERY ASSOCIATION
Comparison of Income and Expenses for 5 years

	1971	*1972*	*1973*	*1974*	*1975*
1. Cash on Hand January 1,	$15,437.57	$15,010.01	$21,132.20	$24,975.06	$18,629.35
INCOME:					
2. Membership, Individual	13,665.50	14,802.50	14,305.00	15,492.61	14,901.56
3. Membership, Family	894.50	974.50	915.50	956.00	943.50
4. Membership, Junior	620.50	734.00	991.75	1,101.25	966.75
5. Membership, Club	1,418.50	2,314.00	2,111.00	2,255.00	2,470.00
6. Membership, J.O.A.D.	1,507.50	1,766.00	1,775.50	1,800.00	1,980.00
7. Membership, Sustaining	25.00	125.00	25.00	25.00	–
8. Total Membership	$18,131.50	$20,716.00	$20,123.73	$21,629.86	$21,261.81
9. Winter League	$ 863.70	$ 533.88	$ 950.00	$ 574.00	$ 430.00
10. Championship Tournaments	9,004.41	8,601.98	9,011.07	9,632.97	14,367.00
11. School Tournaments	262.50	167.50	303.00	387.80	–
12. Interest	1,016.71	850.00	812.50	924.81	859.68
13. Jewelry and Insignias	1,764.35	1,387.63	1,953.56	2,641.90	2,560.00
14. Achievement Awards	635.75	644.75	792.50	537.25	426.50
15. Amateur Cards	1,393.50	1,243.00	1,227.00	1,031.00	894.00
16. Team Travel	9,094.14	7,724.47	12,799.92	16,230.18	27,191.50
17. Star & Qualifying Tournaments	–	5,102.00	2,770.00	890.00	–
18. J.O.A.D.	4,942.30	3,822.86	4,701.03	5,801.19	5,237.98
19. Handbooks, Manuals, etc.	2,104.90	1,671.81	1,405.15	3,340.60	2,287.50
20. Parcel Post & Sales Tax	78.48	51.46	39.65	128.61	207.01
21. Miscellaneous	1,900.50	10,515.63	2,837.49	2,365.93	1,859.51
22. Total Income	$52,129.74	$63,032.97	$59,726.56	$66,116.10	$77,582.49
EXPENSES					
23. Postage	$ 2,165.52	$ 2,242.31	$ 1,681.63	$ 2,945.28	$ 2,657.45
24. Supplies	1,397.60	1,045.98	2,412.66	1,436.45	2,181.15
25. Archery World	6,738.23	6,992.01	6,834.17	6,535.52	9,162.22
26. Royalties	82.60	54.65	46.50	81.00	93.60
27. Achievement Awards	615.52	440.95	977.28	450.23	1,032.75
28. Jewelry and Insignias	2,784.48	109.09	611.11	804.71	2,331.83
29. School Tournaments	505.75	978.28	1,478.23	732.27	94.06
30. Team Travel	13,369.59	12,363.08	17,054.25	18,285.65	22,948.82
31. Travel-Board Governors	164.47	607.60	642.19	659.70	979.09
32. J.O.A.D.	5,528.11	5,437.47	6,001.38	5,378.77	5,884.12
33. Administration	6,863.75	7,200.00	7,200.00	7,200.00	9,405.54
34. Championship Tournaments	7,352.39	6,613.21	6,797.74	8,844.81	12,730.92
35. Winter League	761.54	535.31	792.21	509.42	346.75
36. Association Dues	215.00	200.00	200.00	200.00	400.00
37. Telephone	222.54	168.73	775.00	1,317.89	1,292.46
38. Handbooks, Manuals, etc.	2,500.94	90.57	86.10	7,198.00	267.30
39. Miscellaneous	1,463.36	11,831.54	1,968.46	9,882.11	3,609.04
40. Total Expenses	$52,731.39	$56,910.78	$55,883.70	$72,461.81	$75,422.10
41. INCREASE (Loss)	(601.15)	6,122.19	3,842.86	(6,345.71)	2,160.39
42. Cash on Hand Dec. 31	$14,835.92	$21,132.20	$24,975.06	$18,629.35	$20,789.74

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Archers are legion in the U.S., but target archers, from whom our Olympians come, are few. That they have done magnificently is tribute to their own determination and perseverance.

The Commission's study suggests that the most significant need in archery is improved coordination and communication among those groups conducting national level programs. Increased promotional efforts are also crucial. Two groups, already in existence and quite unique in the realm of amateur athletics, are attempting to deal with these very needs. The Archery Manufacturers Organization (AMO) and the American Archery Council (AAC) establish a pattern for other sports, and increased efforts by both would be of tremendous assistance in the areas of cooperation and support.

In addition, introducing target archery programs in the schools would do much toward increasing the participation base. Much could also be gained by eliminating conflicts in amateur regulations,[3] clarifying those that remain, and standardizing rules of competition.

Improved coordination among the established archery organizations will bring with it the ability to attack the problems associated with:

— Increasing development funding,

— Broadening the participation base,

— Providing coaching instruction,

— Supporting training and educational projects,

— Increasing media coverage, and

— Correcting the facilities shortage.

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[3] Refer to discussion of Amateurism in Volume I of this report.

BASKETBALL

In 1959, the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU), in its capacity as the franchise-holder for basketball, refused to sanction a tour of the U.S. by the Swedish national basketball team. The National Association of Basketball Coaches (NABC) then voiced its dissatisfaction with the AAU's action by announcing that it would seek the formation of a new organization which could take the franchise away from the AAU. In 1960, with NCAA backing, the National Basketball Committee of the U.S., later to become the Basketball Federation of the USA (BFUSA), was formed for the purpose of seeking to become the new national governing body for American basketball.

The battle between the AAU and BFUSA raged for more than 15 years. During that time, both organizations (and their constituents) acted on occasion with complete disregard for the needs of their athletes and the American public in order to further individual organizational ends. The dispute was so bitter that a solution to the problem eventually was imposed by the Federation Internationale de Basketball Amateur (FIBA).

In 1964, FIBA tried first to solve the dispute (in what became known as the "Interim Measure") by allowing both the AAU and BFUSA to conduct independent international competitions at the club level, while leaving the AAU in charge of competition involving the national team. After three years, the dispute had come no closer to resolution. Therefore, in 1968 FIBA decided to send a panel of five representatives to this country to study the dispute. Acting on the recommendations of the panel, in 1969 FIBA set up the International Basketball Board (IBB), on which the AAU and BFUSA were equally represented, and through which the two organizations were jointly to administer the franchise. However, a working spirit of compromise did not exist between the two groups, and bloc voting characterized the IBB's short existence. In 1972, the IBB voted (10 for, 10 against, with the Chairman casting the deciding vote) to ask FIBA to recognize BFUSA as the national governing body for U.S. basketball. FIBA gave the AAU and BFUSA a nine-month grace period in which to come up with a domestic solution to the problem, but no mutually acceptable solution was proposed to FIBA. Therefore, in early 1973 FIBA stripped the AAU of the franchise and offered it to any new organization which could bring together the members of BFUSA (NCAA, NJCAA, NFSHSAA), the AAU, the NAIA and the military. To this end, the Amateur Basketball Association of the United States of America (ABAUSA) was formed, but the AAU refused to join, and the NAIA and military were unwilling to join before ABAUSA received NGB status.

FIBA then asked the USOC Basketball Committee to administer the franchise until a solution could be found; the legality of this arrangement was attacked in court by BFUSA. In 1974, desperate to achieve a solution, FIBA awarded NGB status to ABAUSA despite the AAU's nonparticipation. NAIA and the military joined ABAUSA shortly thereafter. In 1976, during the Olympic Games in Montreal, the AAU reached an agreement on membership with ABAUSA, and the basketball franchise fight finally came to an end.

OVERVIEW

Status of The Sport

Men's basketball is extremely healthy throughout the United States. More than anywhere else, the game (which was invented in America), has effective "national sport" status. Well-developed programs are readily available in all parts of the country to virtually any age group, a situation which consistently enables relatively immature college-age U.S. athletes to defeat experienced and more mature teams from other countries in the Olympic Games.

The few problems men's basketball faces, now that the franchise fight has ended, stem from the difficulty of sustaining post-graduate top level basketball players as active amateurs. Most basketball athletes who do not turn professional after college find it extremely difficult to maintain their skills because no effective national competitive structure exists at the post-graduate level. This lack of opportunity and the difficulty supporting oneself and one's family while trying to train (a problem facing post-graduate athletes in almost all competitive sports), are virtually the only major problems now facing U.S. men's competitive amateur basketball.

U.S. women's basketball, on the other hand, is a "minor" sport compared to men's basketball. Women's basketball receives little national recognition; as a result, participation is limited. Effective programs are localized or restricted to certain age levels and certain socio-economic groups and such national competitive structure as exists is fragmented and inconsistent. Although the U.S. women's team won the Silver Medal in the Montreal Olympics, women's basketball is still only in the first stages of development as a popular national sport. (Note: In both men's and women's basketball, the lack of an effective amateur post-graduate league prevents the U.S. from maintaining an identifiable national team. As teams from other countries become more competitive, the need to do so will increase).

Events in International Competition

International competitions normally participated in by U.S. National teams are as follows:

Events	Frequency	Eligibility	
World Championships	Quadrennial	Men and Women	(national team)
Intercontinental Cup	Biennial	Men	(national team)
Pre-Olympic Qualifier	Quadrennial	Men and Women	(national team)
Pan Am Games	Quadrennial	Men and Women	(national team)
Olympic Games	Quadrennial	Men and Women	(national team)
R. William Jones Cup	Annual	Men	(club/school team)

Both men's and women's teams normally consist of 12 athletes, a coach, and a manager. Qualifications differ for the various competitions, but for the Olympics, eligibility (for men's teams) is restricted to the top seven teams from the World Championships, the top four teams from a Pre-Olympic Qualifying tournament, and the host country's teams. The 12 teams then are divided into two pools; the two top finishers form a round robin competition in each pool play for first, second, third and fourth place.

Only six women's teams compete in the Olympics. The top three finishers from the World Championships, the top two finishers from the Pre-Olympic tourney, and the host country are eligible to compete. The six teams compete round robin; the three teams with the best records win the Gold, Silver and Bronze Medals.

History of World Ranking

American men's basketball has consistently ranked first in the world. Since 1936, when men's basketball became an Olympic sport, the U.S. team always has won the Gold Medal except in 1972 when it took the Silver. Since the Pan American Games began in 1951, the U.S. team has taken the Gold in every competition except 1971, when it placed seventh. The U.S. has not taken other international competitions as seriously, and therefore has not been as consistent in the World Championships.

Women's basketball was introduced to the Olympics in 1976. Although the team took the Pan-Am Gold Medal, U.S. women placed eighth in the World Championships and were forced to qualify for the Olympic Games through the Pre-Olympic tourney. Because of this, many observers did not expect a strong showing in the Olympics. However, U.S. women won the Silver Medal. First place in the world belongs to the Soviet women's team, which has not lost a game in international competition in more than five years.

ORGANIZATION

Background

International basketball competition is controlled by the Federation Internationale de Basketball Amateur (FIBA). As indicated above, FIBA reserves the right to recognize who the national governing body in any country will be. Because the U.S. historically has been extremely active in international exchanges of teams and coaches, this country has many international contacts and maintains good relations with FIBA. This is especially true now that the franchise fight has come to an end.

National Governing Body

The Amateur Basketball Association of the U.S.A. (ABAUSA) was established in 1974 and is an association of all organizations which conduct major national basketball programs contributing significantly to international competition. Each member organization is assigned from one to eight votes upon joining. Members of the old BFUSA dominate the ABAUSA voting structure as indicated below:

Organization	Votes
AAU (American Athletic Union)	3
AIAW (Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women)	2
AFSC (Armed Forces Sports Council)	3
Collegiate Commissioners Association	2
NABA (National Amateur Basketball Association)	2
NABC (National Association of Basketball Coaches)	2
NAIA (National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics)	4
NCAA (National Collegiate Athletic Association)	8
NFSHA (National Federation of State High School Associations)	4
NJCAA (National Junior College Athletic Association)	4
WBAA (Women's Basketball Association of America)	2
NJWB (National Jewish Welfare Board)	1
YMCA (Young Men's Christian Association)	1

ABAUSA is governed by a 13-member council, consisting of five officers serving two-year terms and eight council members serving one-year terms. Council members are elected by the membership. Eleven council members generally represent the major constituent organizations of ABAUSA; two members represent athletes. Two committees, one for women and one for men, are appointed by the council each quadrennial to arrange for national team competitions. Because of recent changes in the Constitution of the U.S. Olympic Committee (USOC), these committees' responsibilities will include Olympic Games preparation activities for the 1977-80 Quadrennial.

ABAUSA maintains a full-time paid executive director and a small staff. Headquarters of the organization are in Jacksonville, Illinois. ABAUSA member organizations conduct practically all domestic competition and development in this country; ABAUSA concentrates on coordinating and improving American participation in international competition. Therefore, the primary functions of ABAUSA are to arrange (and train coaches and officials for) international competitions involving U.S. teams, to sanction domestic competitions involving foreign teams, to field and fund U.S. national teams, and to license U.S. amateurs to play abroad. At this time, ABAUSA's most pressing problem in arranging for international exchanges and competitions is the lack of money for such events. It is hoped funding will become more available as ABAUSA's name becomes more readily associated with our international basketball efforts.

Other Major Organizations

Several of ABAUSA's constituent members conduct nationwide competitive programs most of which culminate in national tournaments. Most active in this regard are members of the educational community, which provide both basic and sophisticated training in the sport, and an intensive competitive structure. They are NFSHSA (boys and girls), NJCAA (men and women), AIAW (women), NAIA (men), and NCAA (men). National organizations which provide elementary training in the sport and a controlled competitive framework for youth include the YMCA and the NJWB. ABAUSA member organizations which provide a competitive framework for post-graduate (or out of school) athletes include the AAU (which conducts programs for both men and women), NABA (men), WBAA (women) and AFSC (men and women). Other member organizations with no competitive structure of their own but interested in national basketball programs include the Collegiate Commissioners Association (which provides a forum for the collegiate conferences to interact on amateur sports issues) and the National Association of Basketball Coaches (which provides a variety of services for coaches in the educational community, and sponsors exchanges and training clinics with coaches in foreign countries).

RESOURCES

Personnel

Most ABAUSA member organizations have either a full-time executive director or a paid, full-time administrator who deals with basketball. Literally millions of people — paid and volunteer — are involved in basketball programs in clubs, educational institutions and leagues throughout the United States. In the educational community alone, according to BFUSA figures published in 1974, approximately 65,000 organized teams, approximately 750,000 competitive intramural teams, approximately 20,000 coaches, and 100,000 officials participate in basketball programs. In addition, outside the educational community, the AAU registered approximately 10,000 athletes in basketball, while millions participate each year in competitions subject to little or no organizational control.

Finance/Funding

ABAUSA spends approximately $130,000/year, most of which is raised from sanctioning fees for international competitions, fees for issuing licenses (certification of amateur status) to U.S. athletes travelling abroad, organizational membership dues, corporate gifts and grants from the USOC.[1] Funds for basketball programs within the educational community come primarily from athletic budgets, T.V. revenues, student fee proceeds, and gate receipts for varsity competitions. No organization is known to collect and compile information on the magnitude of these funds in a comprehensive fashion. Each educational institution finances the training, transportation and coaching of its own teams.

Youth teams, sponsored by the YMCA and the NJWB, raise funds to support their teams from membership dues, organizational budgets, grants, and parental support. Organizations which sponsor post-graduate competition, notably the AAU and NABA, raise funds through registrations, corporate sponsorship of teams, and occasionally, gate receipts from tournaments.

All organizations involved in basketball spend their funds in essentially the same way, for coaching, officiating, equipment expenses, transportation costs, and facility rentals. Depending upon the type of competition and the organization or institution sponsoring the competition, these costs may vary greatly in relation to one another. However, transportation is clearly the greatest continuing expense incurred from the college level of competition on up.

Facilities and Equipment

Because basketball facilities are widely available and because equipment requirements are minimal, neither is a barrier to participation in basketball.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

By far the greatest extent of organized basketball activity takes place in the educational community. The following chart lists participation levels within ABAUSA member organizations.

Organization	Varsity Athletes
NFSHSA	688,690 (boys) 307,608 (girls)
NJCAA	7,464 (men) 4,590 (girls)
NAIA	7,545 (men)
NCAA	16,760 (men)
AIAW	5,000 (women) approx.
AAU	7,029 (men) 2,494 (women)

The above numbers increase dramatically when intramural participation is included. It should be noted that while varsity participation for women is widespread at the high school level, the vast majority of these athletes are forced out of competition at the college level for lack of varsity teams.

Athlete Development

Athletes normally are introduced to basketball early in childhood through youth basketball programs or grade schools. From what is normally very informal training at these levels, the athlete moves to high school, where he is exposed to formal training and intensive competition for the first time.

Male basketball players who excel in high school may find college scholarships readily available. The same is not necessarily true for talented female athletes. The male collegiate basketball player finds extensive and sophisticated training opportunities and a comprehensive competitive structure in which to gain experience. These benefits are much less available to the female collegiate athlete, who may find inadequate coaching, facilities which are not on the level of those used by the man, and an inconsistent competitive structure (i.e., competition may be very hard to find in some areas of the country).

Upon completion of college, both male and female basketball athletes quickly run out of opportunities in which to continue practicing the sport. The exceptional male player may turn professional or join well-developed amateur leagues in Europe; all other athletes, male and female, either must attempt to join poorly developed post-graduate leagues, or must retire from the sport.

Coach Development

The educational community generally develops coaches through teachers' programs. In the schools, participation in basketball programs is justified as being part of the educational process. Therefore, the basketball coach is a teacher first, and a coach second. This is especially true at the high school level, where teachers are well-paid, but where coaching may be only a part-time duty. However, in the college community coaching generally is a well paid, full-time occupation; basketball coaches

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1. ABAUSA declined to supply the Commission with a detailed financial statement on the grounds that "We [the Council members] feel . . . it is not pertinent to your study, and may be misleading if taken out of context."

often have advanced degrees in physical education. No "degree" in basketball exists as such; coaches learn the game through clinics, publications, and experience as both players and coaches.

(Note: Slightly different strategies may be required of coaches depending upon whether International or "Federation" rules are being used — height and strength may be more important in International rules, and the end game strategy is different. NABCUS is very effective at conducting clinics and publishing information for its members concerning such differences.)

Outside of the educational community, no certification procedure exists for coaches. Coaching is voluntary and done on a part-time basis; coaches may be drawn from the school community, or may simply be players (or former players) with somewhat more experience than their fellows.

Officials Development

Certification of officials for domestic competition normally is carried out by the group sponsoring the competition. Most U.S. officials begin officiating at the high school level and are certified by state members of NFSHSA. Certification procedures vary from state to state. The best and most experienced high school officials usually come to the attention of collegiate conferences in their area, and are invited to advance to the collegiate-level of officiating. Compensation for officiating at college games varies (depending on the area and the sponsoring organization) from a minimum of about $15 per game plus expenses, to $150 per game plus expenses for some national tournaments.

Outside of the educational community, certification is carried out by the group sponsoring the competition. Officials may or may not have formal training, and may be voluntary or paid.

As the NGB, ABAUSA administers a written test of FIBA rules to those officials it feels are capable of officiating at the international level. Currently, approximately 140 Americans have been certified through this process, although not all are considered ready for significant international competition. For major international competitions such as the Olympics each NGB nominates one referee to FIBA for each team (men and/or women) eligible for the competition; any shortage of referees is made up by FIBA appointees. A referee may not officiate a game played by his (or her) own national team.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

Rules used in men's basketball within the U.S. educational community are set by the Basketball Rules Committee of the U.S. and Canada. These differ somewhat from international rules which allow rougher and faster play. For example, the so-called "Federation" rules (named after BFUSA) used in the schools, do not call for a 30-second clock and have in the past forbidden dunking (although dunking is to be allowed in the 1976-77 scholastic season). United States athletes have little problem adjusting to international rules given a few weeks of training.

Rules for U.S. collegiate women's basketball competition, sponsored by AIAW, are more in line with the international rules. Dunking is allowed, and a 30-second clock is used to force action on the court.

ABAUSA uses FIBA's amateur eligibility rules to determine an athlete's eligibility for international competition.

Domestic Competition

Major domestic competition occurs on several levels. Professional league play continues throughout the winter, and culminates in a championship in the late spring. At the post-graduate level, both the AAU and NABA sponsor national championships. (AAU sponsors championships for men and women; NABA for men.) At the collegiate level, championships for men are sponsored by the NCAA, NAIA, and NJCAA. Collegiate level championships for women are sponsored by AIAW and NJCAA. The High School Federation sponsors no national tournament and tournaments may or may not occur at the state level. In addition, the YMCA and NJWB both sponsor national tournaments.

During the basketball franchise dispute, domestic competition was restricted; a great deal of friction was generated between BFUSA members and the AAU over NCAA and NJCAA rules which prohibited collegiate basketball players from competing in organized basketball programs during the summer. These rules, originally designed to protect players from gambling interests after the scandals of the 1950s, were used effectively by BFUSA members to prohibit "their" athletes from participating in competitions sponsored by the AAU or other non-BFUSA organizations. (Note: These rules are considered by many to be ineffective in preventing contact between players and gambling interests. However, the NCAA (Walter Byers) in testimony before the President's Commission, pointedly declared that it did not share this view.) The Jack Langer case — in which the NCAA suspended all Yale University intercollegiate teams for two years because Yale refused to declare ineligible one of its basketball players who had competed in the AAU-sanctioned Maccabiah Games in Israel — is the most well known example of how such rules were used. (Note: Of the educational community, only NAIA supported the AAU during the basketball franchise fight.

NAIA rules leave the decision of whether an athlete may compete with another organization during the summer up to the college the athlete attends.)

Because the franchise dispute is over, and because the old BFUSA members have dominant voting strength in ABAUSA, relations between the school/college community and the new national governing body, ABAUSA, have been cooperative. However, rules which require school/college athletes to seek special permission to compete during the summer (even for the Olympic Games) are still on the books of the NCAA and NJCAA and are strictly enforced. These rules are especially injurious to the AAU (and the NGB) in its attempts to conduct summer programs.

International Competition

Except for the Olympic and Pan American Games in the past, selection of the national team is entirely the responsibility of the national governing body. Therefore, ABAUSA designates the teams that will attend the World Championships, the Intercontinental Cup, etc.

Selection of the 1976 Men's Olympic Basketball team was carried out by a Player Selection Committee appointed by the USOC's Men's Basketball Committee. The Selection Committee compiled a list of the top 200 players in this country by order of preference. The top 56 players on the list who accepted were invited to the trials. After observing the trials the Selection Committee picked a team of 13 to train for the Olympic Games. One more player eventually was cut to pare the team to 12.

Because of the great number of extremely qualified players in the U.S. and because seven of the final 12 players were selected from the athletic conference (Atlantic Coast Conference) of the Olympic Coach's school, there was some controversy over the fairness of the selection procedure. There is no doubt that many players who were not selected could have performed well at the Olympic Games. However, the only obvious way to improve the selection procedures would be to provide more money to allow more players to come to the trials, have the trials extend over a longer period of time, and thus give the Selection Committee a longer period of time to make its decision. If a great deal of money were available, it might even be possible to have regional and then national tryouts for all comers. However, this is presently impractical if not impossible.

A further problem faced by the Selection Committee is that several of America's best players declined to accept invitations to the trials. Apparently, agents hired by these players to negotiate contracts with the professional leagues advised the players not to participate in the Olympics on the grounds that an injury or a poor performance in the Trials could decrease their value to the pros. Others, to their credit, chose to ignore such advice, and the U.S. was able to field the Gold Medal team.

The 1976 Olympic women's team was chosen through open trials. Regional trials were held in selected centers in the country; any woman amateur athlete who attended was eligible to try out. From the regional trials, the best athletes were sent to the national trial. After the team was selected, it still had to qualify for the Olympics through the Pre-Olympic tourney. Selection of coaches for the men's and women's Olympic teams was performed by the respective USOC Basketball Committee. Normal procedure calls for members of the USOBCs to nominate and elect a head coach and manager from among the talent available nationally; the head coach then nominates an assistant coach to the committee for approval.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Now that the franchise fight has ended, only two problems of any import face men's basketball. The first is that rules which unnecessarily restrict athletes from competing not only are potential sources of conflict among organizations but also retard the full development of the athlete. The second, the lack of effective post-graduate programs, causes concern that we are wasting a valuable resource and may soon be competing less successfully against increasingly proficient and mature teams from foreign countries. The average age of foreign teams in the Olympics closely resembles the age spread of professional teams in this country. Basketball players do not mature physically or technically until their late twenties, but because of the lack of strong post-graduate level programs, college players in this country generally either turn pro or quit basketball upon graduation.

United States women's basketball continues to suffer from the widely held misconception that basketball is a man's sport. In addition to this bias and the resulting lack of recognition and publicity, the program suffers as well from a meager competitive structure both in college and at the post-graduate level.

Priorities for further development of U.S. basketball, then, ought to include 1) the abolition of rules which unnecessarily restrict competition, 2) creation of an effective post-graduate basketball program for both men and women, and 3) provision of a competitive structure for women comparable to that enjoyed by the men.

The abolition of unnecessary rules can only be undertaken by the organization responsible for those rules. Perhaps this could come about in an environment which includes a strong statement of national sports policy, the realization by ABAUSA's members that they can work with one another, and an understanding by ABAUSA that these rules are not in the best interests of an effective international program.

The old industrial leagues of the 1930s and '40s, made up of teams supported by and consisting of employees of major corporations, provided just the sort of well-developed, national basketball program for the mature athlete needed today. Such leagues as exist today are supported mainly by small businesses; support by major corporations disappeared during the 1940s and 1950s when increasingly well-developed collegiate and professional competitive structures took publicity away from the industrial leagues. Major reinvolvement of corporations in such a basketball program would require incentives which do not now exist. In addition, changes in the overall sports environment would be desirable, including a declaration that sports development for both men and women is a national priority. It is also possible that it would be to the advantage of the professional leagues to contribute funds for the establishment of a national post-graduate basketball program.

Achieving a competitive structure for women comparable to that of the men is something which will take place through increased interest on the part of women to participate and through such programs as those mandated by Title IX of the Higher Education Act (requiring equal opportunity for women in college sports). Women's basketball development should therefore prosper in the years to come. As more people become aware of the success of the American women's program, and as competitive programs come within the reach of more women athletes, the participation base for women's basketball will grow and opportunities now available to men will be made available to women in amateur basketball on a greater scale.

BIATHLON

The sport of biathlon—which combines the skills of cross-country skiing and shooting—continues to survive in the United States only through the determination of a small band of hopelessly undermanned and underfinanced volunteers. Originally a military-oriented activity conceived by the Nordic nations, biathlon in the U.S. lost much of the direct support of the armed services in 1973 when its only national training center (Fort Richardson, Alaska) was closed by the U.S. Army. School administrators, concerned with the safety aspects of a shooting sport, have refused to develop it. At present, barely 35 national/international competitors, a handful of administrators, a collection of approximately 80 large and small bore rifles, two generous financial supporters, and a handful of "courses" are all that exist in biathlon. In the words of one witness who appeared before the Commission, "Right now, the status of the sport is zero."

In the past, biathlon has tried almost every means available to raise money—including bake sales and raffles. The hand-to-mouth existence of the sport and its athletes is best demonstrated by an incident which took place during the 1975 World Championships in Minsk, Russia. Major William A. Spencer, chief of the U.S. team, had left the U.S. with insufficient funds for roundtrip fares, in the hope that money due from the USOC Development Committee would arrive in time for the return trip. At the conclusion of the championships, no money had arrived. Faced with the prospect of being stranded indefinitely in Russia, he wired for some of his own money. The team returned home, and eventually Major Spencer was repaid for his trouble. Despite the happy ending, the incident illustrates the precarious conditions which have plagued biathlon for much of its history.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

Whether or not biathlon survives in this country is wholly dependent on one factor: adequate financing. The U.S. Modern Pentathlon and Biathlon Association (USMPBA), the national governing body for the sport, simply is unable to allocate the manpower or financial resources to implement major development programs in the sport. The USOC Development Committee does not provide adequate funding support. Membership fees or the generosity of those who give their time and money cannot be depended upon indefinitely. Ineffective publicity, poor media coverage and a dearth of prominent spokesmen have rendered futile most efforts to solicit funds throughout the country. Administrators of the sport acknowledge that unless more money is found by the 1980 Winter Olympics, this country may be unable to continue competing internationally in biathlon.

This would be unfortunate, for the United States could have an adequate and competitive biathlon program with modest additional funding. Several regions of the country are ideally suited to biathlon competition; expenses involved in constructing courses are minimal (targets and adequate terrain are all that is needed); and it would not be unrealistic to establish courses at more skiing or cross-country areas around the nation. For the avid marksman, biathlon might provide a new challenge, one which shooters in winter regions might well appreciate. For the avid skier, particularly in the mushrooming sport of cross-country skiing, the skills involved in learning to shoot might prove stimulating.

The sport's appeal has been demonstrated on the few occasions when biathlon received some rare publicity, such as during the 1976 Winter Olympics. Administrators have said they received numerous indications of interest from potential participants. Although biathletes have been more than willing to devote time and effort to develop the sport, the effects of such publicity have more often than not been wasted because of inadequate manpower, undeveloped facilities, and—ultimately—lack of money.

Events in International Competition

Biathlon is primarily an individual sport, although there is team scoring in international competitions. There are three events in the sport, including a 20km race, a 10km "sprint" and a four-man relay.

The 20km event (approximately 12.5 miles) consists of a course with an even distribution of uphill, downhill, and level skiing, with four stops along the way during which the competitor fires a series of five rounds at paper targets 150m away. Time penalties are levied for each target missed.

The sprint event is a miniature version of the 20km with two shooting intervals rather than four. The relay is run over a 7.5km course, with two stops for firing at five breakable targets. For each missed target, the competitor must ski a 200m "penalty loop."

History of World Ranking

Biathlon became part of the Winter Games in 1960. The first competition in the U.S. was held in 1956. Because the sport has not had a chance to develop sufficiently in this country, and because participants rarely have the chance to compete against international caliber athletes, the U.S. has never done well against other nations. At present, the U.S. is ranked near the bottom of the twenty competing nations. The best U.S. Olympic performance came in 1972, when the team placed sixth in the relay event.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The national governing body for biathlon is the U.S. Modern Pentathlon and Biathlon Association (USMPBA), organized in 1960. It is a non-profit corporation listed as a non-taxable entity under Federal law. USMPBA is one of only two organizations in the U.S. responsible for the administration of more than one sport on the Olympic calendar.* (The other, of course, is the AAU.) The two sports have a single administrative head because the international body, the Union Internationale de Pentathlon Moderne et Biathlone, governs both sports.

USMPBA has conducted annual national and junior championships since 1965. In Olympic years the top six biathletes in the national championships make up the U.S. Olympic team. In non-Olympic years, these top qualifiers represent the U.S. at the annual World Championships.

USMPBA's administrative structure consists of a President, Senior Vice President, three Vice Presidents, a Secretary, and a Treasurer. USMPBA is divided into seven membership groups as follows:

- Group A consists of one delegate each from the AAU, American Fencers League of America (AFLA), American Horse Show Association (AHSA), U.S. Revolver Association, National Rifle Association (NRA), U.S. Ski Association (USSA), NCAA, U.S. Marine Corps, U.S. Army, U.S. Navy, and U.S. Air Force. Each of these organizations is allocated one vote at annual or special meetings.
- Group B consists of sponsors through "life membership" who have contributed $1,000 or more to USMPBA. This group is allocated one vote each up to a maximum of eight.
- Group C consists of all active past officers of USMPBA, each of whom is allocated one vote.
- Group D consists of those who have contributed at least $100 annually. These members are given one vote each up to a maximum of four.
- Group E consists of biathletes or pentathletes who finished first, second, or third in national championships in their respective sports, or who participated in international competition, including the Olympics and Pan American Games. Athletes are given a maximum of 12 votes at meetings.
- Group F consists of trainers, coaches, team officials, and biathletes and pentathletes who do not qualify for Group E membership. This group is allocated five votes at meetings.
- Group G is open to any "interested citizen," and is given a voice but no votes at meetings.

USMPBA's primary work is accomplished by the Board of Directors (BOD), 22 members who serve four-year terms. They are selected as follows:

Elected officers (7)

***Its other responsibility, modern pentathlon, consists of riding, swimming, shooting, fencing and cross-country running.**

From Group A, one delegate from each member organization (11)

From Group F, one delegate

From Group E, three delegates

In the event that officers are elected from a group represented on BOD, another individual can be chosen to replace him.

It should be pointed out that no less than 50% of the voting power on BOD is composed of Group A members, and it is possible that the percent could be greater, given the rule that a member from any group elected as an officer can be replaced by another individual from his group. No dissatisfaction with this structure has been expressed. However, some group entitled to USMPBA representation, such as the NCAA, have failed for years to send representatives to any meetings.

Permanent standing committees include the Executive Committee (consisting of the seven officers), which acts in behalf of BOD between meetings, and committees appointed by the Presidnet and chaired by each of the three Vice Presidents. The Finance Committee's purpose is to generate and distribute funds for the administration of biathlon and pentathlon. The Development Committee is charged with finding and developing athletes for biathlon and pentathlon, promoting both sports, and coordinating and initiating competition both nationally and internationally.

Finally, the Selection Committee is responsible for the recommendation of athletes, coaches, and support personnel for national and international competition (final action on these recommendations is taken by BOD). This committee also determines the eligibility of individuals participating in any competition in which USMPBA is involved.

It should be noted that USMPBA is in the process of reviewing its structure, constitution, and by laws to determine whether any changes need be made to conform with the recent USOC reorganization.

No other organizations (including the school/college community) conduct programs in biathlon. Sponsors of events in recent years include the National Guards of Minnesota and Vermont, which have initiated annual competitions and conducted clinics with representatives of USMPBA.

RESOURCES

Personnel

USMPBA has no permanent or part-time employees to administer biathlon. Therefore, volunteers perform the work of organizing events, raising funds, and representing USMPBA at national and international meetings of sports groups.

Finance/Funding

A principal source of funding for biathlon is the USOC, which granted $34,000 for the quadrennial 1973-1976. This amount is less than half the total amount available to biathlon over that period. It also represents approximately one-half of the amount USMPBA had requested from the USOC. Administrators of USMPBA have said that their request to the USOC, coupled with other funding sources, would have provided the sport with enough money to meet its development plans. As it was, certain programs, including an expanded series of clinics, enlarged training sessions for the national team, hiring of permanent staff to administer biathlon, and the creation of more biathlon competition in the U.S., were eliminated or seriously curtailed.

The military provides an "in kind" donation, allowing USMPBA to use Camp Johnson, Vermont, as a training site and storage facility for its pool of rifles. However, there is no pool of coaches to assist competitors at Camp Johnson, as there was when biathlon had its permanent training center at Fort Richardson, Alaska. Finally, it should be noted that the President of USMPBA is an employee of the Department of the Army and has been instrumental in continuing military support to both biathlon and modern pentathlon.

Facilities/Equipment

As noted above, the principal training site for biathletes is located at Camp Johnson. However, other biathlon courses include the Minnesota National Guard "circuit" and courses at Jackson Hole, Wyoming; Bend, Oregon; Lake Placid, New York; and Anchorage, Alaska. These and other sites service the "Regions," or geographical areas of interest in biathlon.

In addition to finances, principal obstacles to the construction of more facilities have been availability of the proper type of terrain and, in some instances, state and Federal park regulations prohibiting the use of publicly owned lands for the construction of biathlon courses.

USMPBA has made available a pool of approximately 50 large bore rifles to those who want to participate but can't afford to buy their own rifle (up to $350). However, with the 1977-78 season, international rules will require the use of small bore (.22 caliber) rifles. The advantages of this change in rules are that target distances will be reduced from 150m to 50m, reducing the amount of land required to lay out a course for an event. Additionally, the cost of ammunition to the athlete in small bore competition is expected to be roughly one-tenth that of large bore events. Unfortunately, USMPBA has only 30 small bore rifles, although it expects to be able to purchase more after it sells its large bore weapons.

Weapons USMPBA obtains in this manner, however, will not be sufficient to meet the needs of the estimated 100 competing biathletes. Therefore, the individual athlete must purchase rifles, ammunition and ski equipment at a cost of up to $600. Spokesmen for the sport acknowledge that this discourages a number of potential biathletes.

DEVELOPMENT

Development in biathlon has been hindered by lack of full-time staff, funding deficiencies, inadequate media coverage, and the reluctance of athletic clubs and the school-college community to take up the sport. In the past, USMPBA has conducted numerous biathlon clinics in areas of the country where skiing is popular. In some cases, both alpine and cross-country skiers, unable to qualify for national or international teams in their primary sport, have switched to biathlon. Additionally, USMPBA has used USOC development funds to publish an informative and authoritative booklet on the sport.

In addition to competing in the world championships or the Olympics, the top six finishers in USMPBA national championships form a "national team" which also competes in Europe during one month of the season. This limited exposure to world class competition has been most helpful to our best biathletes. However, teams from other nations do not compete in this country (due, once again, to lack of facilities and finances); coupled with the lack of an "off season" training program, this has hurt the development of our world class athletes.

Finding coaches knowledgeable in both shooting and cross-country skiing is virtually impossible at present. In fact, one of the purposes of clinics is to attract skiing and shooting coaches to biathlon. In many cases, coaches of one or the other discipline have made themselves available to biathletes.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

USMPBA has done all it can within its limited means to serve as an effective and productive national governing body in biathlon. The sport's administrators are the first to acknowledge their deficiencies, however, and are eager to offer and implement suggestions for their sport. Of paramount importance is the acquisition of funds which will allow them to hire a full-time Executive Director for USMPBA and a full-time Director and/or National coach for biathlon. These spokesmen believe that development of athletes, coaches and officials, as well as fund raising, public relations, and the establishment of a club system, all would be possible with a full-time staff. To accomplish these goals, an estimated $75,000-$100,000 annually would be required.

Also greatly needed is a year-round national training center, staffed with a full complement of coaches and equipped with adequate equipment (rifles, ammunition, ski equipment). Upgrading the Camp Johnson site could accomplish this goal.

Additionally, USMPBA must have more cooperation from some of its member organizations, particularly the NCAA and the AAU, if the sport is to succeed in the nation's clubs and colleges. Finally, USMPBA should explore the possibility of inviting other groups, including NAIA and the high schools, to become members. This would encourage development which presently does not exist in the school/college community.

The best and sometimes desperate efforts of those presently associated with biathlon have kept the sport going. But biathlon is doomed to a lingering death without the infusion of additional manpower and new money. Cake sales and raffles notwithstanding, the sport simply cannot survive without stable financial sources beyond those presently available.

BOBSLED

In the thirty-two year period which preceded the 1956 Winter Olympic Games, American bobsled teams brought home five Gold, four Silver, and four Bronze Medals. In 1956, the U.S. won its last medal (a Bronze) in Olympic bobsled competition. In view of the fact that only 13 countries are members of the International Bobsled and Toboggan Federation, the Americans' consistent finishes out of the top three in recent Olympic competition is strong evidence of serious problems.

OVERVIEW

The U.S. Olympic bobsled team's fall from glory has been caused in part by a slow relative decline in training facilities — in that several European countries have built new, refrigerated tracks while ours have remained unimproved — and a corresponding change in the nature of the sport — in that a different physical type of athlete is winning races today than won thirty years ago. In spite of this, the U.S. Olympic bobsled program is not in bad shape. There exists in the U.S. a hard-core of experienced bobsled athletes and coaches; America's single bobrun at Lake Placid's Mt. Van Hoevenberg, once considered the best in the world, could be restored to that status well before 1980. Several of the major problems faced by the sport — problems which include the present lack of adequate facilities, the lack of adequate funding for specific events, and the lack of adequate training programs — can be addressed in the short-term. Solutions to these problems could have a significant effect on our performance in international competition, and such solutions could be implemented in time to have that effect on the 1980 Games.

Other problems which affect the American bobsled program — problems such as the lack of a large base of participants and the lack of public interest in the sport — probably cannot be dealt with in the short-term, and await concerted, long-term programs.

Events in International Competition

Bobsledders race large sleds holding crews of two or four persons. The races take place on a descending, walled track of snow and ice; the track has many sharp curves, which are steeply banked to prevent the sleds from flying off the run.

The start is crucial. Each team attempts to push its sled across the starting line with as much speed as possible. The faster a sled is travelling as it crosses the line (and triggers the race clock), the more quickly the sled will reach top speed.

There are two paths or "lines" down a bobrun: the safe line and the fast line. Both lines are essentially the same on the straightaways, but diverge sharply on the curves. The path of the safe line swings high up on the wall of the curves (as one would expect a rapidly moving bike or car to do on a banked turn), while the fast line always follows the straightest line down the hill, and therefore skirts the bottom of the curve. The pilot who can best fight the tremendous momentum of the sled and steer the fastest line on the curves — without losing control of the bob and crashing — normally will win the race.

In the Olympic games, competing nations enter two teams each in the two- and four-man bobsled events. Each sled competes in four heats; the composite times of each of the sleds determines the winner. A full team for Olympic competition is twelve persons. Men and women are considered interchangeable in bobsled; women theoretically are allowed to compete on the men's team, but to date no women have done so.

History of World Ranking

Currently, the U.S. Olympic bobsled team ranks about seventh of 13 nations active in the sport, following a steady decline since its first place standing in 1928 and 1932. The chart below shows the distribution of medals won by the U.S. in Olympic competition.

Year	G	S	B	Year	G	S	B
1924	—	—	—	1956	—	—	1
1928	1	1	—	1960	not held[1]		
1932	2	1	1	1964	—	—	—
1936	1	—	1	1968	—	—	—
1948	1	—	2	1972	—	—	—
1952	—	2	—	1976	—	—	—

Top bobsled teams in the world at present are East Germany, West Germany, Switzerland, and Italy.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The AAU holds the franchise for bobsled in the U.S. The National Bobsled Committee of the AAU is composed of 51 persons: at-large delegates, representatives of regional AAU associations and representatives of national allied organizations which are members of the AAU. Of the 51 members, 32 are members of the AAU's Adirondack Association, within whose territory the only bobrun is located.

Although subject to AAU rules governing sports committees, the bobsled committee is able to operate in a largely autonomous fashion. The committee is not required to attend the AAU's national convention; instead, it meets six to 12 times per year at Lake Placid. Very few committee members from outside the Lake Placid area are able to attend committee meetings because of the cost of transportation and the time involved. This leaves the administration of the sport largely in the hands of the local organization which, in many instances, appears to lack national perspective. The scheduling of meetings and events, the dissemination of information, and the distribution of funds and equipment are carried out essentially with the aim of benefitting the local group, which includes the bulk of the sport's participants. Because most U.S. bobsledders reside in the Lake Placid area, and because this local group controls the committee, no major efforts currently are being made to generate wider geographical participation in the sport.

There is no friction to speak of between the National AAU and the Bobsled Committee. The major benefits bobsledders receive from the AAU are easy access to insurance (which the local group or individual athletes could procure only with difficulty and at great expense), and amateur certification. The bobsledders currently get more from the AAU than they give. The AAU gets only those intangibles it receives by virture of being the national governing body (NGB) for a winter Olympic sport; AAU expenditures related to bobsled administration somewhat exceed the meager revenues received from the sport.

Other Major Organizations

The U.S. military contributes substantially to the bobsled program. The Air Force, Navy and Marines have been active in fielding teams and providing sleds and training time for athletes in the service. In addition, military personnel who compete on service bobsled teams receive free transportation from the military for themselves and their equipment. The current national team coach is a serviceman.

No other national organizations operate bobsled programs, but two governmental bodies, one state and one federal, play a crucial role in supporting the existing U.S. program.

Until 1972, the day-to-day operation of the Lake Placid bobrun was funded by the New York State Recreation Authority. In 1972, money from the State was not forthcoming and the bobrun was closed. Because unemployment that year rose about 30% in the Lake Placid area, the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) — now Community Services Administration (CSA) — made grants available for justifiable programs to decrease unemployment and boost the economy of the community. The bobrun, which employs approximately sixty persons who are normally unemployed during the winter, has been able to qualify for an average grant of just under $100,000/year. The cost of operating the bobrun has risen from about $110,000 in 1971 to approximately $140,000 in 1976 (costs are mainly labor and energy; the season is normally two and a half months long). The difference between the CSA funds and the operating costs of the run normally are made up from private donations, gate receipts and volunteer workers.

Funds were also available through CSA grants for the labor costs involved in installing a system to partially refrigerate the bobrun. Equipment was to be supplied by New York State. Unfortunately, the State was not able to fulfill its tentative commitment for the equipment and the bobrun, at present, remains unrefrigerated. However, current plans of the organizing committee for the 1980 Winter Olympics call for the refrigeration of the bobrun.

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[1] The site of the 1960 Winter Olympics, Squaw Valley, California did not have a bobsled (or combined bobsled-luge) run.

Relationship with International Federation

International competition is controlled by the International Bobsled and Toboggan Federation (FIBT), founded in 1923 in anticipation of the first Winter Olympics at Chamonix, France, in 1924. FIBT recognizes the organization which the National Olympic Committee in each country designates as the NGB for bobsled.

In the past, occasional problems arose for FIBT because of the lack of organization in the U.S. bobsled program. Although FIBT prefers to deal with only one entity within a country for all matters relating to the sport, it found that questions concerning Olympic matters had to be referred to the U.S. Olympic Bobsled Committee; questions concerning certain aspects of the AAU bobsled program were referred to AAU House, while other matters might be directed to the AAU Bobsled Committee chairman in Lake Placid, and the bobrun itself was the domain of the bobrun administrators, who are separate from the other groups. This communication problem has largely been solved by recent AAU and USOC reorganizations. The AAU Bobsled Committee will henceforth act as the Olympic Bobsled Committee. All questions concerning bobsled now may be directed to the Committee chairman, and the committee and the bobrun facility administrators are working closely together to prepare for the 1980 Games. This separation of the NGB and the administration of the bobrun — which has a parallel in Switzerland at the privately owned St. Moritz run — is much more acceptable to FIBT than was the former arrangement.

RESOURCES

Personnel

The National AAU Bobsled Committee, 30 to 35 of whose 51 members are active competitors and regularly attend committee meetings, has no permanent staff. However, one administrator at AAU House works part-time on bobsled and has access to secretarial help.

No procedures exist for certifying U.S. coaches. Older and more experienced bobsledders generally volunteer to coach the younger and less experienced athletes. The current national team coach is an experienced bobsledder who still races competitively; he was elected to his post by the AAU Bobsled Committee.

According to FIBT regulations, more than 50 officials are required to supervise any international level competition. It is a matter of some concern to both FIBT and the AAU Bobsled Committee that fewer than five Americans have been certified in this capacity by FIBT. Although the host country is expected to supply officials for the Olympic Games, plans to certify the necessary officials for the 1980 Games at Lake Placid have not yet been made final.

Finance/Funding

The National AAU Bobsled Committee has done an excellent job in the past of finding the funds necessary to run an effective international program. The relatively few athletes who participate in bobsledding do not generate enough in registration fees to provide significant annual revenue, yet the committee has been able to solicit approximately $15,000 each year from Lake Placid area merchants and businesses. In addition, the USOC contributes approximately $5,000 per year in development funds to the sport. This brings bobsled's annual income from all sources to approximately $20,000 (excluding income and costs associated with the bobrun).

Lake Placid area residents have been effective in acquiring grants from state and federal governments to subsidize the costs of operating and improving the bobrun (as mentioned above). Upkeep of the bobrun also is partially supported by user fees. A ride down the bob track costs $2 although a $100 season ticket is available.

Other financial assistance comes in the form of donations of sleds and user fees by various clubs or branches of the armed forces.

The $15,000 in corporate donations solicited each year by the bobsled committee normally pays for transportation and lodging for national teams attending the World Championships or European competitions. USOC funds traditionally are used to purchase new sleds for the national team. The national AAU contribution is used for administrative costs, for yearly FIBT membership dues ($300) and for travel to and from FIBT meetings for the AAU representative.

Facilities

The primary and most expensive requirement for this sport is the bobsled run. Two types are used in competition, one designed just for bobsled and one designed for both bobsled and luge. The technical description of a bobrun is:

- — run is walled and composed of snow and ice
- — minimum length of 1500m
- — minimum average grade 8%
- — maximum grade at any point 15%
- — run should descend through a minimum of 15 curves

Only four operating runs in the world fit the above description. One is in the U.S. at Lake Placid's Mt. Van Hoevenberg and three are in Europe.

The combined bobsled and luge run is similar in the bobrun except in the following particulars:

- track may be shorter than 1500m
- characterized by flat (rather than descending) curves
- curves are generally tighter
- fewer curves necessary

There are no combined runs in the U.S. and only six refrigerated runs in the world.

Increasingly, newly built tracks are combined runs. Because of the expense involved in building either type of track, sponsors generally compromise on a facility which can accommodate competition in both sports. American bobsledders, however, generally express dissatisfaction with the construction of combined runs. Because luges are very light (maximum 53 pounds) and normally have difficulty getting traction on ice, combined runs are designed to descend through the straightaways and flatten out in the curves. The downward momentum of the sled forces the runners of the luge to dig into the ice on the flat curves and this enables the luger to steer. Bobsleds, on the other hand, are extremely heavy (maximum 1,386 pounds empty) and are therefore able to get good traction even on bobruns, which descend through the curves. Bobsleds are able to get such good traction on combined runs that almost all pilots can steer the fast line down the track. This, combined with the fact that bobruns are allowed to be steeper than combined runs, makes the start extremely important (if not all-important) in bobsled races on combined runs.

Refrigeration often plays the major role in allowing a country to maintain a consistent bobsled program. At the Lake Placid bobsled run, which is not refrigerated, it takes up to two weeks to prepare the track for competition. Preparation, obviously, must take place in freezing weather. One or two days of warm weather can result in the cancellation of competition or even destruction of the track surface. This situation works a hardship on athletes who travel long distances to compete. The risk of cancellation also causes problems for the Bobsled Committee in its attempts to sell TV rights for particular competitions.

Equipment required by the competitor is as follows. A two-man bobsled costs approximately $2,000, while a four-man bobsled costs approximately $2,500. (Note: An import duty of 9% is assessed on each sled shipped to the U.S., even though no U.S. corporation manufactures bobsleds). Shipping costs add another $200-$300.

In addition, the athlete must provide his own winter clothing, helmet, goggles, and insurance policy (which comes through the AAU with the athlete's registration). Helmets range in cost from approximately $30 to $100.

Travel costs vary depending on what arrangements the athlete can make for transportation and lodging at Lake Placid. The $100 season ticket adds to a bobsledder's expense.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

Because the bobrun has been available only to a small group of people, participation has not changed drastically in the last several years. At the 1932 Winter Games, bobsledding was a popular spectator sport, but spectators have declined with the decline of tourism at Lake Placid.

Current programs to increase the level of participation are not far reaching. The Junior Olympics Program applies generally only to those young athletes who have easy access to Lake Placid. Providing rides on the bobrun to the public, which could be an instrument for spreading interest in the sport, also is available only to those who live in the area or who frequent Lake Placid as tourists.

Athlete Development

Age or sex mean little in this sport. The essential requirements of the bobsledder are access to the bobrun, sleds, and the insurance policy. Young and old alike compete, but for safety reasons no one under 16 is allowed on the Lake Placid run except during specially scheduled events like the Junior Olympics.

Women were banned from competing in bobsled during the late 1930s, although at least one woman, in 1934, piloted a sled which won the North American Championship. Currently, women are allowed to compete for any position on any team; few do.

Because each team is composed of a pilot and one or three passengers, there are no uniform physical requirements for the bobsled athlete. Obviously, the driver must have steady nerves and quick reflexes, but the physical characteristics of the crew may vary. Formerly, when bobsled athletes competed only on bobsled runs, the weight of the crew was important to the success of the team. The heavier the sled, the better the driver's control on the turns. Thus the heavier teams got down the hill faster. However, as more competitions take place on combined runs, the start has become an increasingly decisive factor in the race. Because of their familiarity with combined runs, European teams have begun picking athletes who can insure a particularly fast start. The East Germans, for example, select crews from among track and field athletes. American teams, accustomed to the bobsled run at Lake Placid and with less access to athletes from other sports, have been slow to follow the European lead, a fact which may be contributing to our decline in the sport.

Coach Development and Official Certification

As mentioned above, no training programs exist in this country for coaches.

FIBT conducts training and certification of officials. Major international competition requires a retinue of more than 50; currently, fewer than five Americans are certified.

COMPETITION

International rules are used at all levels of competition in this country. FIBT rules of amateurism are in line with those followed by the AAU.

Domestic competitions held each year include local (club level), junior and senior contests and the AAU nationals. International competitions conducted on an annual basis include the North American Championships and the Diamond Cup Championships (an American Invitational tournament). Every fourth year the annual World Championships are replaced by the Olympic Games.

Team Selection

Selection of the national team for the World Championships and other international competition is conducted by the AAU Bobsled Committee.

Olympic team selection is conducted according to U.S. Olympic Bobsled Committee guidelines. Trials for the 1976 Games were designed to be conducted by taking the composite time over six heats for each sled in a two-day competition. The Committee was forced to change its guidelines and use only three runs per sled when warm weather the second day of competition made the bobrun unusable.

The major complaint voiced during the Trials was directed toward the philosophy of the selection procedure, rather than its implementation. By averaging the times of the sleds, the selection committee was able to pick the fastest overall teams to represent the U.S. in the Olympics. However, with the sophisticated timing equipment used at the run, it was possible to determine which pilots drove the fastest races, and which crews gave the fastest starts. No attempt was made to break up teams and combine the fastest crews and pilots to produce faster overall teams.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Because access to the bobrun is the essential requirement of the sport, and because of the expense involved in building such runs, many of the serious problems which affect the U.S. bobsled program originate in the lack of facilities. Since no training facilities exist in the U.S. outside of the Lake Placid area, athletes must travel to the Adirondacks as a first requisite to competition. The run is not refrigerated; this causes scheduling to be subject to the vagaries of the weather. The run is not lighted; runs may be made safely only during daylight. Thus, the athlete may make it to Lake Placid, but still not have access to the bobrun.

Those who live and work in the Lake Placid area obviously are best able to use the run on a regular basis for training and competition. It comes as little surprise, then, that the local group dominates the national organization which controls the franchise. Although the situation arises naturally from the general lack of facilities rather than from any abuse of power, it nevertheless discourages "outsiders" from successfully taking part in the administration of the sport, and thus tends to perpetuate itself.

Although the sport (as demonstrated by the performance of the AAU Bobsled Committee) does an effective job in raising money for U.S. national teams, costs incurred by athletes (especially athletes living some distance from Lake Placid) in the attempt to get training in Europe or on the Lake Placid run are often prohibitive. Few clubs exist outside the Adirondack area; those that do find it increasingly difficult to balance the costs of sleds and other equipment against the benefits of occasional access to the bobrun.

Solutions to the problems facing the U.S. bobsled program should be directed toward two goals: the short-term improvement of our national team effort in preparation for the 1980 Winter Games, and the long-term increase in the participation base of the sport.

Both goals depend, in the first instance, on the availability of facilities. Current plans of the Lake Placid organizing committee call for the refrigeration and lighting of the Mt. Van Hoevenburg run; the availability of the run should thereby be enormously increased. Further, the scheduling of media coverage for the many international competitions which take place on the run will become much less risky. If, as expected, the increased availability of the run for training programs results in an improvement of U.S. team performance, bobsled administrators should find getting publicity for the sport much easier than it has been.

For the national team effort, one bobrun, available on a full-time basis, will be more than enough to ensure adequate training. For the 1980 Winter Games, the U.S. team will be competing on its home track. The Italian and Swiss teams are the only others that have regular access for training on bobruns (as opposed to combined runs). These two facts may well be enough to put the U.S. teams in contention for Olympic medals.

The refrigeration and lighting of the Mt. Van Hoevenberg bobrun probably will not, however, have a significant effect on the participation base of bobsled. People in the Lake Placid area — who are already familiar with the sport — will undoubtedly participate more frequently, and athletes committed to the sport who live outside of the Lake Placid area will at least find the run available when they travel there to compete. However, very few people across the country who have not competed before are likely to travel to Lake Placid to do so. Because the sport is so "facility-intensive," the generation of many new participants for the sport will require the establishment of other bobruns in other parts of the country. Building other bobruns would have the added natural effect of giving the AAU Bobsled Committee a more national perspective.

In addition to (and independent of) the top priority of increasing the availability of bobsled runs, the need exists to ease certain unnecessary financial burdens on athletes and the clubs which support them. While efforts to this end should be made for all sports, bobsled has particular problems because of the expense involved in procuring and transporting equipment. Eliminating duties levied on imported bobsleds and/or encouraging domestic manufacturers to begin producing sleds would somewhat alleviate this burden. Also, the immense costs of transporting sleds and athletes overseas for competitions, and the waste of equipment inherent in storing a certain number of sleds overseas to use in competitions, might be alleviated if federal regulations were changed to permit transport of sleds and teams by the military.

In summary, the bobrun is the central feature of bobsledding; growth of the sport is largely dependent upon the access athletes have to the facility. Logically, any plans for developing the sport must succeed or fail depending upon the availability of bobruns. The short-term goal of improving U.S. team performance in 1980 by providing one full-time facility appears to be on the way to being reached. The long-term goal — of increasing national participation in the sport by providing other runs in other parts of the country — is the next step to be taken.

BOXING

In 1960, Charles Mohr, the defending NCAA 156-pound champion from the University of Wisconsin, entered the ring to defend his title. Two days later, Mohr was dead, the victim, it was thought, of injuries received during the fight. Although an autopsy later revealed that the fight had no relation to Mohr's death, public perception was different. College boxing – once a major source of development in the sport – began its decline.

In 1976, the U. S. Olympic boxing team posted its most successful performance in a quarter of a century, winning five Gold Medals, One Silver, and one Bronze. This remarkable success was one of the major highlights of American performance at the Montreal Games.

These two incidents – one tragic, the other euphoric – dramatize the vicissitudes U. S. amateur boxing has endured since its heyday in the first half of this century. On the one hand, boxing is an orphan. There are no inter-scholastic programs and in most states high school boxing is outlawed. There is no NCAA-recognized collegiate program; of the eleven men who participated in the Montreal Games, some will turn professional and some will retire. But it is safe to say that none will compete in the 1980 Moscow Games.

On the other hand, the success of the 1976 Olympians puts the U. S. first in the world of amateur boxing. Club boxing in this country has seldom been as popular as it is today and some colleges, particularly in the East, have begun boxing programs. Nationwide clinics on international-style boxing, an increase in the numbers of young boxers competing internationally, an emphasis on skills rather than the knockout punch, and a solid Junior Olympic program sponsored by the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) have contributed to this growth.

The future of U. S. boxing depends in large part on whether the sport can move away from past mistakes and build on present achievements. Boxing seems to be on the verge of a revival, but even though American boxers enjoyed one of their finest hours at the 1976 Olympics, the condition of the sport is questionable and its future unpredictable.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

The success of the Montreal Olympic team is the result of a 10-year program initiated by the AAU to acquaint U. S. boxers with the style, rules, and strategies of international boxing. Before 1966, few Americans had the opportunity to box under international rules, except in Olympic competition. As a result, many young boxers attempted to imitate professional boxing, in which the principal object is to inflict as much damage as possible on one's opponent. Defense was seldom emphasized, knockout punches were. Unfortunately, the American boxing public was oriented almost solely to the professional sport, in which the slug-fest was a bigger attraction than a superb boxing match between two skilled participants.

Accordingly, amateurs successful in this country often were penalized by international judging which emphasizes finesse and defensive skill, and values all punches the same, regardless of their "K.O." capacity. All too often, though physically superior, U. S. boxers lost matches by disqualification or on points awarded by judges hostile to their style of boxing.

Much of the success of the 1976 U. S. Olympic team is attributable to the team's understanding of international judging and to prior participation in matches fought under those rules. The team also spent several weeks in a training camp prior to the Olympics, producing the finest physically conditioned U. S. team ever sent to international competition, and assuring a familiarity between the athletes and the coaching staff. As the team manager later commented, "we boxed together, ran together, ate together, and prayed together."

Despite the success of the Olympic team, problems hindering the continued development of U. S. amateur boxing remain:

- Lack of cooperation among the groups involved in amateur boxing with regard to administration of the sport, sanctioning of international teams, coordination of competitive schedules and disparities in rules of competition;
- Boxing's image as a dangerous sport;
- Absence of school/college programs;
- Lack of adequate facilities; and
- Lack of adequate coaching.

Events in International Competition

Competitors in amateur boxing participate in one of eleven weight classes, ranging from Light-Fly (104-pounds) to heavyweight (over 178 pounds). International rules are designed to emphasize boxing skills, rather than brute force. Accordingly, international rules can give a knockdown punch equal weight with any other well-executed punch.

The target area in international boxing is the front part of the head and body to the waistline. No part of the arm is included within the target area. The five judges must assess the amount of force behind a blow in determining its score. Thus, the number of punches which land within the target area, combined with the amount of force behind them, determine the winner of a three-round match.

History of World Ranking

Based on its Olympic record, the U. S. team is presently considered first in the world rankings, followed by Cuba, the Soviet Union and East Germany. Although such titles are unofficial, the U. S. also won the team Olympic Championships in 1904, 1924, 1932, and 1952.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) is recognized by the international governing body, the Association Internationale de Boxe Amateur (AIBA), as the franchise holder in the U. S. The AAU Boxing Committee, directly responsible for the sport within the AAU structure, ostensibly represents all groups in amateur boxing. The total number of persons eligible to vote at the Annual Boxing Committee meeting in 1976 was 123. This number may change, however, due to recent amendments to the AAU Code.

These amendments, which take effect in 1977, provide that the Committee will be composed of one or two representatives from each member association, depending on its size; one representative from Allied members active in the sport (three to Allied members holding national championships); one representative from each of the Armed Services; and between four and seven athletic representatives. In addition to the regular members mentioned above, members-at-large may also be included in the Committee. Up to five may be appointed by the AAU President. Also, for every ten regular members, the Chairman may appoint one representative and the full committee may elect one.

Relations between the Boxing Committee and the national AAU are good, as the committee feels it has been given sufficient autonomy to run its programs. The Committee selects its own representatives to Group A of the USOC. Although all contracts are signed by the national AAU on behalf of the Boxing Committee, the Committee is consulted in advance and is given the opportunity to endorse provisions related to remuneration under such contracts.

Major AAU programs include the Junior Olympic boxing program, involving regional competition for boys aged 10 to 15; a national championship, in which more than 400 boxers competed in 1975; and a continuing series of clinics for boxers, coaches and officials. The AAU also sponsors and selects participants for international competitions and controls all broadcast rights for international events.

Other Major Organizations

Golden Gloves Association of America

The Golden Gloves Association of America consists of 32 franchises across the country, each granting its owner the exclusive right to promote and conduct Golden Gloves events in his region. Golden Gloves is the largest boxing program in terms of active competition. Because there is no registration requirement for Golden Gloves boxers, actual participation figures are not known. However, the Executive Secretary of Golden Gloves estimates that "99 percent of all registered AAU boxers came up through Golden Gloves." The AAU, which does not dispute that statement, claims that most amateur boxers train and compete in its own programs as well as in Golden Gloves and the Armed Services.

Each Golden Glove franchise holder conducts weekly competitions, and the association sponsors regional and national championships as well, making it the primary vehicle for development of U. S. boxers. (Ten of the eleven boxers on the 1976 Olympic team began their careers with Golden Gloves, eventually moving into AAU competition.)

Although affiliated with the AAU, Golden Gloves has in the past been dissatisfied with the amount of representation it receives in the governing body. Golden Gloves spokesmen say that although its boxers contribute the most to the AAU program, it has received only one vote out of 123 on the AAU Boxing Committee, no more than other groups which contribute little or nothing to national amateur boxing programs. However, with changes in the AAU Code affecting Committee membership, Golden Gloves will receive more representative strength.

Another dispute between the two groups concerns the AAU's refusal to allow Golden Gloves to send teams to international competitions. In the past, the AAU has told Golden Gloves that, as the franchise holder, the AAU should be the only organization to field international teams. Further, since Golden Gloves rules differ from international rules of competition, the AAU feels these boxers may face defeat and possible injury abroad unless adequately prepared. A spokesman for the AAU Boxing Committee has told the President's Commission on Olympic Sports that it will approve Golden Gloves teams for international competition provided AAU standards and specifications are met (i.e., provisions are made for a trainer, coach and AIBA delegate) and provided proper application is made. Golden Gloves, however, believes that the AAU will never allow boxers to compete internationally under the Golden Gloves aegis, and that it will continue to require all international teams to be represented by the AAU.

A final area of dispute concerns sanction fees charged by local AAU associations for Golden Gloves competition. National AAU rules allow a local association to assess fees on competitions held within its jurisdiction by organizations which are affiliated with or are members of the AAU.[1] The exact fee is discretionary, and local AAUs usually charge a percentage of the gate. Therefore, assessment of fees varies across the country.

Golden Gloves feels the percentages are sometimes prohibitive and are not necessarily related to the purpose they are intended to serve. Further, some Golden Gloves officials interpret these fees as an attempt by the AAU to assume control over lucrative Golden Gloves programs. The AAU is now considering whether its rules should include a provision limiting such assessments.

Because of these differences, relations between the two groups have not been conducive to development of the sport. Golden Gloves officials have speculated that unless steps are taken to acknowledge their group's contributions to the AAU program, a serious franchise challenge could result. The immediate past chairman of the AAU Boxing Committee insists, however, that the AAU is willing to cooperate fully with Golden Gloves in the interests of "winning boxing."

Armed Services

The Armed Services have provided U. S. teams many of its Olympic boxers as well as the added advantage of international fight experience and expertise. With the advent of the all-volunteer Army, however, Armed Services boxing programs have been somewhat de-emphasized. Whereas during the draft there were as many as 1000 international-caliber boxers, there are now only 200-300. Nevertheless, the military still offers opportunities for a soldier/boxer to compete in an organized program with excellent training facilities. While most national amateur champions and Olympic participants turn professional at the first opportunity, service boxers, because of their job stability, usually stay amateur. The Armed Services usually run their own domestic and international programs and their relationship with the AAU is usually only through participation in the national championships.

College Boxing

Since the Mohr death following the 1960 NCAA Boxing Championships, college boxing has been virtually non-existent. Prior to 1960, more than 50 colleges and up to 1500 boxers participated in boxing as a varsity sport, drawing large and enthusiastic crowds. After 1960, high schools dropped the sport, and only five West Coast colleges continued their varsity boxing programs, using headgear and heavy gloves. In addition, new collegiate rules allowed only those with no prior college boxing experience to participate, so that the experience level of all boxers would be the same.

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[1] Article 28, Section 328.5 of the AAU Code, 1976.

Although the boxing matches drew large crowds and anywhere from 50 to 100 students tried out for the teams, these West Coast schools eventually discontinued boxing as a varsity sport, primarily because no scholarships were available.

In recent years, however, several Eastern colleges have developed club boxing programs with dual meets and an annual Eastern Collegiate Boxing Association Championship. More than 20 college-affiliated programs are now underway. Although these programs have not yet developed boxers of national caliber, boxing's return to the campus has been encouraged by the AAU and could contribute greatly to the future of amateur boxing.

RESOURCES

Personnel

All personnel involved in amateur boxing are volunteer, with two exceptions: the administrator of the AAU boxing committee and a part-time Executive Secretary of the Golden Gloves Association of America. This includes coaches, AAU boxing committee members, Golden Gloves franchise holders and its Board of Directors, as well as the referees, judges, and ringside physicians for local and national matches.

Finance/Funding

AAU financial records indicate that in the fiscal year July 1975-June 1976, the Boxing Committee spent close to $12,000 on administration and approximately $46,000 for competition. Most of the funds expended for competition were for the Junior Olympic program and the AAU National Championships. Much of the revenues raised to offset these costs came from fees paid by broadcast interests, sponsors of local boxing competitions, and athletes registering with the AAU.

The AAU also was given $29,000 by the USOC to finance the training and transportation costs of the Pan American Boxing Team and for general development costs.

Total revenues for the Golden Gloves programs are difficult to gauge, since nearly all competitions are staged locally and income from gate receipts is put back into the local program. According to Golden Gloves, most of its programs operate on break-even budgets. Each of the 32 Golden Gloves franchises is required to pay $325 annually to the national association. Nearly all of these funds go to pay the salary of the Executive Secretary.

Whether amateur boxing will continue to grow in this country is largely dependent on attaining a steady source of income. While network television fees paid for broadcasting international bouts have been vitally important to international programs, boxing administrators have found that additional sources of income to finance program development and growth are essential.

AAU Boxing Committee administrators have stated that in order to maintain current levels of development and to attract new supporters and competitors, a minimum budget of $75,000 annually ($100,000 in Olympic years) would be necessary. While itemized budgets justifying these figures are not available, these spokesmen state that based on previous experience, these expenditures would be needed to 1) increase the number of clinics for athletes and coaches, 2) produce training films and other aids, 3) finance a national team, 4) develop a national training camp with facilities and coaching, and 5) support additional fund raising and facility-development programs.

Facilities/Equipment

One of the most serious problems confronting amateur boxing is the lack of adequate gyms and training facilities. Estimated cost for construction of a ring is $5,000 while training equipment (gloves, punching bags, etc.) can run $2,000 to $3,000. Without broad interscholastic or intercollegiate programs and assistance, amateur boxing will always be an after-hours or after school program, often conducted in broken-down gyms, backyards, and wherever else an athlete can find space to train.

Adequate training centers which do exist are provided by schools, colleges, private gyms, Police Boys Clubs, CYO centers, YMCAs and some city recreation departments. The AAU's major contribution is to provide volunteer coaches, doctors, officials, and trainers to gyms and clubs which have programs. Boxing administrators are not always willing to accept a helping hand, however. In 1976, Muhammad Ali offered his training camp to the U. S. Olympic team. However, the U. S. Olympic Boxing Committee, primarily through its AAU representatives, refused to accept, claiming that involving professional boxing in the amateur world would be detrimental to the sport.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

In spite of the decline of professional boxing in this country, the number of competitors in amateur boxing programs has never been higher. Approximately 11,000 amateur boxers are registered with the AAU. Nevertheless, participation levels are low when compared to those of other nations where boxing is a much more popular sport. For example, there are 450,000 boxers in the USSR. Without high school programs, few potential competitors are exposed to an initial boxing lesson which could attract them to the sport. In addition, few boxing prospects have adequate facilities in which to train or compete.

The AAU's Junior Olympic program, begun in 1970, has helped rekindle an interest in the sport among young athletes. A boxer used to have to be 16 before he could compete in AAU programs; now youngsters may begin well-supervised programs at nine years of age. One advantage of this program is that recent national team members have had much more international ring experience and training. In the years before this program was initiated, it was not unusual for a U. S. boxer to win a national title with 20 or 30 fights. Now, a U. S. boxer of international caliber may well have had 60 to 80 bouts before his first international fight, making him a far more experienced competitor.

Athlete Development

In many cases, participation in national tournaments or international matches causes serious financial hardship or academic difficulty. Consequently, the local or unsponsored boxer often passes up these tournaments. Even though training camps are beneficial and essential, similar financial and scholastic problems may exist. Basically, U. S. boxers are developed at the local level and trained by a local coach. Development depends totally on the athlete's desire and skills, the abilities of his coach, and the extent to which the local program gives him the necessary competition.

Coach Development

Providing adequate numbers of trained coaches is a major problem in boxing. Presently, 2,000 to 3,000 coaches teach boxing. Most have no training in physical education; few have developed coaching skills beyond what they learned during their own careers as boxers. However, as in any other sport, having once been a competitor does not automatically make one a good coach. Too many amateur coaches rely on outdated methods even though the state of the art may have advanced and international scoring requires different skills or techniques. There is no training or certification program for boxing coaches, and spokesmen for the AAU Boxing Committee state that less than 50% of all coaches have a solid understanding of international styles and rules.

Coaching clinics sponsored jointly by the AAU and the USOC have helped alleviate some of these problems. These clinics are held throughout the year and across the nation. Organizations requesting them provide a location convenient to boxers, coaches, officials, and administrators who wish to attend. The fundamentals of international boxing are discussed, including scoring, officiating, and rules. In addition, lessons are given to boxers on how to use international rules to their advantage. In most cases, those who conduct these clinics volunteer their time and are reimbursed only for expenses.

Officials Development

There are presently 600 officials in the U. S. qualified to officiate in domestic competition. Of these, 50 to 100 are used at national tournaments. Under AIBA rules each member nation is allowed a maximum of eight officials for international competition anywhere in the world. Additionally, each of AIBA's geographically defined "bureaus" allow each nation up to eight qualified officials to act as judges or referees in bouts between athletes representing countries in that bureau. The U. S. has 16 officials eligible for bureau and/or AIBA competition.

Although the officiating of international events has frequently been criticized, AIBA and its bureaus require an official to pass a rigid set of examinations before granting him international status. To apply for bureau recognition, an individual must have at least four years experience officiating in competition sanctioned by the NGB of his country. Then he must pass an examination to be able to officiate at the bureau level. After two years of work at this level, he becomes eligible for AIBA recognition. At that time he must pass written, oral and practical examination, as well as officiate in a minimum of six international bouts.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

As stated earlier, the style of boxing in this country was once totally different from that practiced in international matches. This situation is improving, but rules are still inconsistent from program to program. Whereas the AAU now conducts its programs under a judging system similar to international rules, the Golden Gloves program varies from franchise to franchise, a factor which inhibits efforts of many boxers to compete effectively in international competition. Many amateur judges in local matches also may be professional boxing judges who base decisions in both kinds of matches on the same essentially professional criteria. One judge may give more points for a power hitter's punches, another may give more points to counterblocking or jabbing.

In AAU bouts, three rounds of three minutes duration is the standard rule. In Golden Gloves, many programs are three rounds of two minutes duration.

Domestic Competition

The two major U. S. boxing tournaments are the annual National AAU Championships and the National Golden Gloves Championships. Participants usually qualify at local and regional tournaments before advancing to the Nationals.

A problem to which Golden Gloves and the AAU should give attention is the scheduling of the AAU and Golden Gloves National Tournaments. Since most competitors participate in both, better coordination in scheduling at the national level would relieve the financial burden on many of the boxers, in terms of travel expenses and time away from their jobs.

International Competition

In addition to the Olympics, AIBA conducts a semi-annual world championship. The Pan American games are held every four years and the Confederation of Olympic Boxing in the Americas holds its four-zone championship every other year. U. S. military boxers also participate in the annual *Conseil de Sport Militaire* (CISM) Championships. In the last four years, AAU-sponsored teams have participated in 33 international matches. Finally, the U. S. fields a boxing team for the Maccabiah Games, an event involving Jewish athletes from various nations, which takes place every four years.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

As in many other Olympic sports in the U. S., amateur boxing survives largely through the efforts of a small group of devoted volunteers and an even smaller group of paid professionals. What makes boxing different is that in the public's eye, it is a dangerous sport in which competitors can be hurt or even killed. It is further perceived as a training ground for professional boxing, rather than as a sport which one might take up solely for the sake of his own enjoyment and satisfaction.

These misconceptions do nothing for a sport which in the last decade has worked hard to improve its image and its standing in the amateur sports community. Amateur boxing demands the highest standards of dedication, endurance and skill. AAU and international rules are designed to protect the competitor, not encourage the knockout blow. Adherents state unequivocally that amateur boxing is far safer than football, and that if opportunities to compete were made more widely available, more athletes would participate.

Unfortunately, amateur boxing does have a multitude of problems, some of which are not due to its unfavorable image. It is seriously hampered by the feud which periodically disrupts relations between the Golden Gloves and the AAU. It is hindered by the longstanding neglect within the school/college community. It is hurt by the lack of funds to develop competitors of national and international caliber, and by the lack of facilities which could help immeasurably at the local level. Finally, in spite of the unprecedented number of participants in the sport, stronger development efforts are frustrated by the fact that its best competitors and coaches either retire from active participation or turn professional.

As the national governing body for the sport, the AAU should be as active as possible in resolving the disputes which threaten irreparable harm to amateur boxing. Consideration should be given to allowing the Golden Gloves Association representation more commensurate with its contributions to the sport, and it is hoped that the new committee makeup, as well as the new procedures for selecting at-large delegates, will help resolve this issue.

Much of the recent international success of U. S. boxers is due to efforts of individuals within the AAU to conduct boxing clinics across the country, emphasizing international rules and procedures. More of these clinics are needed. Those who conduct them deserve compensation for their time and effort, beyond reimbursement for expenses. It is anticipated that this would facilitate participation by additional qualified instructors.

Finally, a continuing program is needed to certify the knowledge and skills of amateur boxing coaches, and colleges should be encouraged to train physical education teachers in the skills of coaching boxers.

Renewed national attention following the 1976 Olympics would indicate that amateur boxing could attract a large following, given sound management, adequate funding, good coaching, and more competitors. At present, sufficiency in each of these areas has not been attained. Unless these needs are met in the near future, the sport will have lost an excellent opportunity for improvement.

CANOEING AND KAYAKING

"There aren't the paddlers because there are no facilities and no equipment to learn in. There are no facilities because there is no interest. There is no interest because there aren't enough races. There are few races because there is no one to run them. There are no coaches or organizers to run them because there is no base and if there were a base, there wouldn't be any teachers and the organization would be inadequate."

This quote from a questionnaire response submitted to the Commission sums up the rather discouraging situation of Olympic flatwater paddling in the United States.

Judged on the criteria of participation, funding, media exposure, world rank and administrative support, Olympic-style paddling is one of the truly minor sports in this country.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

Development of flatwater paddling is hindered by a number of factors, chief among them being the sport's present administrative organization. On the one hand is the U.S. Olympic Committee's Canoeing and Kayaking Committee, which has access to funds but whose jurisdiction is limited to Olympic activities. On the other hand the American Canoe Association's (ACA) National Paddling Committee (NPC) is severely limited financially but is responsible for all non-Olympic development of the sport. Although ACA is the governing body for Olympic-style paddling, this responsibility has been delegated to NPC which is only one of several activity committees within the association and receives very little of ACA's budget or staff time. In short, U.S. canoeing and kayaking is badly underdeveloped:

- Although ACA has about 4,000 members, there are only some 350 Olympic-style paddlers, most of them 12-16 years old.
- There are virtually no formally trained coaches in the sport and most paddlers either train themselves or train each other.
- Fully equipped and well laid out race courses are scarce. While many waterways are available, locker room and clubhouse facilities, and suitable space for spectators and officials are seldom nearby.
- Most official racing boats are manufactured in Denmark, making expense and availability a problem.
- Clubs currently form the backbone of the sport since high schools and colleges generally do not have programs in flatwater racing, but the number of clubs sponsoring races has been declining in the past several years.

Defining and understanding the limitations of U.S. Olympic-type kayaking and canoeing was the objective of an intensive investigation within ACA in 1965 and 1966. This effort, following on the heels of the 1965 Arthur D. Little Report, was aided by the late Kalman Blaho, consultant to the USOC, and revealed the following:

- The few existing active clubs had low memberships and poor facilities.
- Competent coaches and racing officials were in short supply.
- A large percentage of individuals involved had no interest in enlarging the sport and infusing new blood.
- There was no broad competitive base since canoeing was not an intercollegiate and interscholastic sport.
- Group activity needed more emphasis in order to show a satisfactory overall performance, since 60% of the events in the Olympics and Wrold Championships are competitions by crews.
- The cost of equipment was prohibitive only when coupled with a lack of public familiarity, interest and support.
- Domestically manufactured, inexpensive training kayaks and canoes were needed to introduce the sport to a broader ranger of the public.

A long-range integrated program was proposed by the then ACA Commodore and the NPC Chairman to elevate the sport to the Olympic level. Their proposals, to be implemented over the period 1967-1972, were to:

a. Develop interscholastic canoeing by establishing canoeing centers in 24 high schools and colleges;

b. Develop eight non-scholastic organizations and canoe clubs for the general public and for students during their vacation periods;

c. Give financial aid to selected schools and non-scholastic organizations to encourage them to participate and to make the necessary initial investment;

d. Produce domestically manufactured plastic kayak and canoe training crafts to permit large scale introduction of the sport at minimum cost;

e. Conduct basic and advanced clinics emphasizing coaching, officiating and organization of scholastic and non-scholastic centers;

f. Publish coaching and training textbook to aid the development of an adequate coaching staff; and

g. Reorganize and enlarge the present War Canoe program (large canoes holding 10 or more youngsters, used for games) to introduce more youngsters to competitive canoeing.

The projected cost of the proposed six-year development program was $86,990 (in 1966 dollars) representing an average annual expenditure of $14,498.34.

This program was designed to enlarge the sport and strengthen the sports governing body, to produce a first rate Olympic team in 1972 and the years following. It was intended also to eliminate uncoordinated expenditures of USOC Development Funds and eventually to reduce the need for these funds to a minimum. Lacking administrative and financial support, the proposal was no more than 20% implemented. Its provisions still would be applicable to developing the sport today.

Events in International Competition

Men's canoeing and kayaking first appeared in the Olympic Games in 1936. Women's events followed in 1948. The 1976 Games included a total of eleven events, an increase of four over 1972:

Kayak single, men	K-1	1,000m
Kayak pair, men	K-2	1,000m
Kayak four, men	K-4	1,000m
Canoe single, men	C-1	1,000m
Canoe pair, men	C-2	1,000m
Kayak single, women	K-1w	500m
Kayak pair, women	K-2w	500m

The following were added in 1976:

Kayak single, men	K-1	500m
Kayak pair, men	K-2	500m
Canoe single,mmen	C-1	500m
Canoe pair, men	C-2	500m

Unlike the sport practiced recreationally, the only competition on the Olympic roster is flatwater paddling for men and women: racing canoes and kayaks over non-turbulent waters for distances of 500m and 1,000m each. Although whitewater events were added to the 1972 Games, they subsequently were dropped for economic reasons and are no longer part of the Olympic schedule.

Each country is permitted to send a 19-member team to the Olympic Games: three women kayakers plus one reserve, three men canoeists plus one reserve, seven men kayakers plus one reserve, two coaches and a manager.

Boats for international flatwater competition are different from recreational boats used in the U.S. International canoes are wooden and shaped more like dinghies than like recreational canoes. Paddlers must kneel on one knee and use paddles with blades that are at an angle to the shaft. Kayaks generally are made of wood, although fiberglass ones have been introduced recently. These are very similar to those used for recreation, although faster and more stable.

History and World Ranking

Despite the fact that canoeing and kayaking is a sport native to North America, the U.S. has shown very poorly in international competition. Americans have won only three individual medals in Olympic flatwater paddling: a Silver in 1,000 m C-2 (1948), a Bronze in 500m K-lw (1964) and a Silver in 500m K-2w (1964). U.S. prospects for the future look dim unless development improves dramatically.

Current world powers in the sport are Russia, Rumania and Hungary.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The internationally-recognized governing body for canoeing and kayaking is the American Canoe Association (ACA), which was founded in 1880 but obtained tax-exempt status only in 1974. Its interests and responsibilities have expanded over the years to include such things as ecology, water safety, river rights, flatwater paddling, whitewater or slalom paddling, marathon canoe racing and canoe sailing. Headquartered in Denver, Colorado, ACA has an office staff of two paid part-time individuals (an executive secretary and a secretary) and a fluctuating number of volunteers. This staff processes memberships and book orders, prepares newsletters and information brochures (*Canoe Magazine*, the official ACA publication, is published once a month), raises funds and lobbies on river rights and conservation issues.

Delegates to the annual ACA Congress are elected from 13 geographic divisions. The number of delegates from each division varies according to constituent membership. Congressional representatives vote on policies and programs presented for approval by ACA Council, which acts as the association's executive committee.

ACA Council consists of ACA officers, six activity chairmen, and 13 division representatives elected by their divisions. Intended to be representative of all facets of ACA activities, the Council makes association policy and budget allocations. Activity and Standing Committees submit recommendations and requests to the Council, but funds are limited and programs often do not receive the resources necessary to achieve their objectives. This is currently true for the National Paddling Committee (NPC) which is responsible for Olympic-style paddling. NPC members feel that many Council members do not fully understand the technical and administrative aspects of flatwater paddling and often render decisions affecting NPC based on incorrect or incomplete information.

Activity committees, which do long-range planning and programming, do not have their own by-laws and operate according to ACA directives. Consisting of a chairman and representatives from as many divisions as have participants in a given activity, these committees are Olympic (Flatwater), Slalom (Whitewater), Whitewater-open, Cruising, Canoe Marathon and Canoe Sailing.

The flatwater program is administered by NPC. The chairman and seven of the 10 division representatives (who serve as chairmen of their regions' paddling committees) are currently active paddlers. NPC has no policy-making power although it may recommend policy to ACA Council. NPC publishes a monthly newsletter for all registered flatwater competitors, promotes and supports a junior development program, and conducts indoor training sessions for competitors. There are no national championships separate from the Olympic trials.

Ten special and standing committees carry out other ACA responsibilities such as Callman Buchanan Canoe Camp, Canoe Instruction Certification, Hall of Fame, Historical Archives, Judicial Committees, Rafting, River Rights Action, Safety, and Conservation.

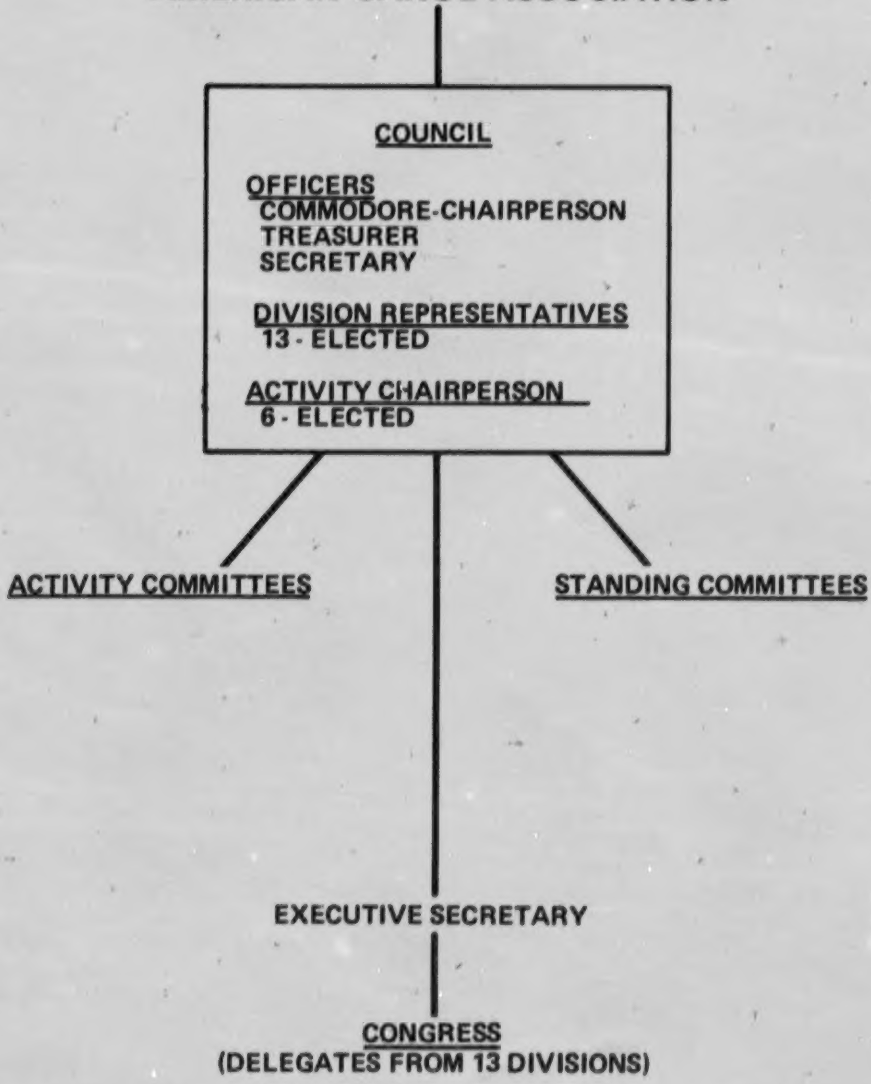
Other Major Organizations

No other organizations in the U.S. conduct organized programs in Olympic-style paddling. Several, however, such as individual colleges, universitites, YMCAs, YWCAs, Catholic Youth Organizations and Jewish Welfare Boards, offer educational or recreational programs in canoeing or kayaking. In 1971-72, the most recent year for which figures are available, the NCAA reported 15 member institutions with intramural men's canoeing programs (1,772 participants), while 10 member institutions had a women's intramural program (359 participants). Canoeing also was offered as a physical education course in 19 NCAA institutions for men and in 20 for women.

The real backbone of the sport is the network of private clubs with docking, boat storage, and clubhouse facilities. These clubs provide supportive services and a meeting place where paddlers can share information and ideas and organize to develop the sport in their area. Active clubs are found in areas where flatwater paddling is popular, primarily the mid-Atlantic coast, California, Michigan and Florida. These clubs number less than a dozen

ORGANIZATION CHART

AMERICAN CANOE ASSOCIATION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COMMODORE-CHAIRPERSON
TREASURER
SECRETARY
DIVISION REPRESENTATIVES
13 - ELECTED
ACTIVITY CHAIRPERSON
6 - ELECTED
ACTIVITY COMMITTEES
STANDING COMMITTEES
EXECUTIVE SECRETARY
CONGRESS
(DELEGATES FROM 13 DIVISIONS)

and have been decreasing over the past several years.

Relationship with International Federation

The participation, contribution and influence of the U.S. in the International Federation for Canoeing (ICF) is practically nil (ICF officials have indicated they don't even know who the U.S. delegates are). There are few funds to send delegates to ICF meetings. More important, however, the designation by ACA rather than by NPC of flatwater representatives to ICF means that these delegates do not necessarily represent or understand the flatwater aspects of the sport. In the past, U.S. delegates to ICF have been whitewater paddlers.

RESOURCES

Personnel

There are no paid administrators for the Olympic-style paddling program in this country.

Very few coaches are formally trained for flatwater competition and those that are have been trained in foreign countries. Therefore, flatwater competitors are primarily self-taught or teach each other. A few individuals have become coaches because of their own or their children's competitive experience. Many of these individuals coach at a personal expense of more than $2,000 a year, since their fees do not cover their travel, equipment, and time costs.

Facilities/Equipment

Because the present number of active competitors is so small and natural waterways so plentiful, the sport could experience substantial growth before any real pressure is felt on existing facilities. However, climate and heavy recreational use constrains year-round and prime-time use of rivers, lakes and canals by competitive athletes. These natural facilities rarely have showers, rest rooms or locker rooms, except those maintained by boat clubs or colleges.[1] With the exception of the Michigan area, most flatwater paddling is concentrated in areas conducive to year-round training.

Training facilities, though not complete with amenities, at least are adequate. Racing facilities, on the other hand, with permanent stands and service areas for specators, are virtually non-existent. Some colleges have competitive facilities that could be used for flatwater races but are reserved for rowers because of their greater numbers and the higher priority placed on intercollegiate rowing competition.

Equipment for flatwater paddling is in very short supply and restricts both the growth of the sport and the development of current elite athletes. The only major manufacturer of Olympic-style canoes and kayaks is in Denmark. Canoes and kayaks cost a minimum of $600 and the time lag between order and delivery is approximately two years. Elite U.S. paddlers frequently make their own boats of fiberglass cast in molds made from the more expensive Danish boats. Because demand in the U.S. is so low, large domestic manufactures have no incentives to build Olympic-style boats, although at least one U.S. canoe and kayak administrator has begun making flatwater boats on a small scale.

Funding

Only three organized sources of funds are available to flatwater paddling: ACA appropriations, USOC development funds, and monies collected by NPC from race entry fees.

ACA contributes approximately $800 of its $44,000 a year income to NPC: $400 for the committee's operations and $400 to help send ICF delegates to meetings. This money represents 22% of ACA membership fees paid by flatwater paddlers. As indicated in ACA budget, most ACA income is spent on administration, support of *Canoe Magazine* and other promotional expenses; this is where the remaining 78% of flatwater paddlers' dues goes, despite which they receive minimal administrative support from ACA and negligible mention in *Canoe*.

The USOC sports budget/development committee appropriated $48,463 to the Canoeing and Kayaking Committee for the quadrennial 1969-1972 and $65,547 for 1973-1976.

NPC could solicit corporate funds but does not because of insufficient experience and business contacts. If it did, only ACA would have the authority to sign a contractual agreement, and 10% of the gross would go to ACA.

In the past, NPC derived an additional $1,000 (approximate) annually from entry fees to national championships as well as from registration fees. This year expenses for the meets depleted that $1,000.

There has been one attempt by a private citizen to set up a foundation to support Olympic canoeing programs, but legal fees have been prohibitive, and plans have been shelved indefinitely.

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[1] A unique exception to this general state of affairs exists in Washington, D. C., where athletes may use the Potomac River, the C & O Canal or, by special arrangement, the indoor Naval Ship Research Center basins.

AMERICAN CANOE ASSOCIATION BUDGET 9/15/75—9/15/76

INCOME	
Dues[2]	$36,700
Book Service Profit	4,500
Miscellaneous	300
Interest from Callman Trust	2,500
Total Income	$44,000
EXPENSES	
Office/officers Expenses	$ 7,000
Rent	1,620
Salaries	5,400
Taxes	315
Computer	3,600
Canoe Magazine	10,400
Yearbook	2,600
Activity Committees[2]	1,400
Divisional Refunds	5,400
Association Memberships	800
Legal Expense	100
Miscellaneous	300
River Rights Committee	100
Trust Fees	200
Insurance Program	1,500
National Meeting	400
Constitution Reprint	1,000
Total Expenses	$42,135
SURPLUS	$ 1,865

[2] Only these line items pertain directly to NPC.

DEVELOPMENT

Athletes

Although well over one million Americans canoe or kayak recreationally, there are only about 350 competitive flatwater paddlers (about .04%). Few recreational paddlers take up flatwater paddling because of the extensive training necessary, the difference in canoes, or the motivation required to race. Instead, most newcomers to flatwater are retired competitors from other aquatic sports such as swimming or diving. Only about 14% of the 350 flatwater racers are senior paddlers, the group from which Olympic paddlers are selected; the rest are 12 to 16 years old. In 1974, for example, there were 304 registered flatwater paddlers (95 women, 209 men), of whom 44 were senior paddlers (13 women, 31 men).

Because flatwater competitors are largely self-coached or coached by other athletes, styles (including mistakes) tend to be perpetuated. Even at the Olympic level this is a problem as Olympic team coaches to date have not been well trained. Historically, they have been paddlers themselves, sometimes coaches, but not coaches of elite-level paddlers.

The U.S. Olympic Canoeing and Kayaking Committee has run programs to develop flatwater athletes. These have included clinics and training camps as well as some international competition. During the 1973-1976 Quadrennial, the Canoeing and Kayaking Committee established the National Olympic Development Team. Top paddlers from all over the country were brought together for coaching and conditioning, with an emphasis on developing the timing and rhythm necessary for successful team boats. Since this development team received partial funding, coaching, and an opportunity to train with the nation's best, it proved to be an incentive for all paddlers.

One major drawback to the concept of team training camps is that many older, more experienced paddlers are unable to attend due to family and job commitments. As a result, they are at a disadvantage in the Olympic Trials, since athletes on the development team and in national team boats have trained together.

Another limiting factor in these USOC development programs is that no American coaches have formal training in related educational skills such as psychology and physiology. Of further concern to many athletes and administrators in the sport is that these development programs have been based on a "top-down" philosophy wherein only the elite receive attention on the assumption that grassroots development will follow. This clearly has not happened in the sport of canoeing.

As in so many other Olympic sports, a major barrier to athlete development is the lack of support for post-collegiate athletes. Flatwater competitors peak in their late 20s and early 30s and may compete effectively into their 40s and 50s. Presently, serious older athletes tend to follow one of two patterns: either they have taken time out from pursuing a career or family to train exclusively for their sport, or they've squeezed four or five hours a day of training into lives already full with family and job obligations. In the first pattern, societal pressures often cause these athletes to feel extremely guilty about their continued paddling. In the second pattern, the time and energy required to train adequately place a great deal of stress on both athlete and family.

Coaches

There are no programs or clinics for flatwater coaches in the country and, hence, no formally trained coaches. NPC chairman has been negotiating to bring a top coach over from Europe, but it has been difficult to find the money to finance his trip and to pay him to teach other coaches and athletes while in the U.S.

Officials

Fewer than a dozen U.S. officials are internationally certified. As a result, competitors often lack confidence in domestic officiating. Since domestic races are judged "by sight," the placings of boats as they finish sometimes is not correct.

Media

Flatwater paddling receives little media attention, partly because it is not sensational enough for the average spectator. Even *Canoe Magazine*, the official publication of ACA, emphasizes recreational and ecological aspects of the sport, mentioning flatwater paddling in less than ten percent of its issues.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

Rules and standards used for domestic competitions are basically the same as those used internationally. Rules of amateurism do not appear to cause paddlers any real problems, although some U.S. competitors resent paddlers from other countries using donated boats on which corporate names are prominently displayed, despite international rules to the contrary.

Domestic Competition

Domestic competition is limited largely because competitors are few and widely scattered. At the local level, there are inter-club competitions and regattas. Since paddlers are concentrated in the mid-Atlantic coast, California, Michigan and Florida, nearly all major competition (including division and region championships and Olympic Trials) occurs in these areas.

In order to participate in any of these races, paddlers must pay for transportation for both themselves and their boats. This is true at all levels of competition, including the Olympic Trials.

International Competitions

No international competitions are held in this country for lack of organizational interest, support, and money. Elite paddlers compete in the summer Olympics and World Championships (the sport is not on the Pan American roster). There is also a Junior World Championship. Because of limited ACA funds, athletes have to pay most of their own expenses even to compete in world championships and other international competitions, such as invitational regattas.

Team Selection

The pairs and fours require a combination of paddlers well-matched in terms of strength, rhythm and style. At present, the make-up of most team boats is based on geography and personality. The two development camps administered this year by the U.S. Olympic Canoeing and Kayaking Committee attempted to change that system so that coaches could select the best possible combinations.

Combinations selected at these camps entered the 1976 Olympic Trials along with independently-formed boats. National development team members made a strong showing, sweeping a majority of places on the team. After the Trials, further training was provided those members of the Olympic team who could attend. No readjustment of teams was made after the Trials, although there was some sentiment within the canoeing and kayaking ranks that the Olympic coaches—assuming they were well qualified — should have made sure that the strongest combinations trained and competed in the Olympics, even if it meant re-shuffling paddlers.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Flatwater canoeing and kayaking in the U.S. has a very dim future unless it is strengthened administratively and financially.

- The base of flatwater competitors has shrunk to 350.
- ACA gives NPC less than $1,000 (2% of ACA's total budget) to administer the flatwater program.
- There are virtually no formally trained coaches and few trained officials.
- Permanent competitive facilities are lacking and equipment is limited.
- There are no paid administrators or staff and the program suffers accordingly.
- Elite development programs, except those funded by the USOC, and adequate international competitive opportunities are lacking. (The USOC only supports short-term,

event-related development for elite athletes; there is no continuing program.)

Despite the conclusions and recommendations of the Arthur D. Little report of 1965 and subsequent U.S. Olympic Canoeing and Kayaking Committee and ACA reports of 1965-1966, the sport has experienced no significant improvement in terms of general popularity or broad-based support.

Canoeing and kayaking is at a disadvantage administratively because it is managed by a small committee of volunteers within a governing body whose main interests are recreation, education and conservation rather than competition. ACA has not given NPC activities very high priority or financial or staff support, nor has it given NPC the autonomy to operate on its own.

On the other hand, NPC has not been very innovative in seeking its own funding sources nor has it exerted strong leadership in developing the sport. NPC does not have a large enough constituency nor is it strong enough financially to exist autonomously. It needs ACA's cooperation to attract recreational canoeists to flatwater paddling. Lines of communication between the two groups need strengthening, and planning for mutual benefit should be encouraged.

The program proposed in 1965-1966 by ACA and the Canoeing and Kayaking Committee (see pages 2 to 4) would go a long way toward furthering development of the sport.

CYCLING

The year was 1973, the place, Barcelona, Spain, site of the World Road Cycling Championships. Having completed their events, members of the U.S. team were preparing for the trip home when they were told their tickets had been lost, and that they would have to stay in Spain until new ones could be issued. However, the team was given no expense money for that four-day period. When the tickets finally arrived, the team manager advised his penniless charges to "leave inconspicuously." Although each left in separate taxis, hotel officials soon figured out what was going on, and the U.S. team was last seen leaving Spain in a hurry, hotly pursued by an enraged hotel manager.

Although the hotel eventually was compensated for its services, the episode highlights the budgetary and organizational problems which have plagued amateur cycling in the United States. The sport is growing steadily in popularity in this country, and recent achievements of U.S. cyclists in international competition have won the attention of racing adherents around the world. But competitors at all levels of cycling often have been strapped for funds and administrative support. In some cases, money has been so short that athletes competing for the U.S. could not appear in international events unless they paid their own way. Prior to the 1976 World Championships in Monteroni, Italy, 1976 National Sprint Champion Sheila Young Ochowicz refused to participate if she had to pay her own way. Fortunately for her and for U.S. cycling, the money was found. The result was an all-U.S. sprint cycling final, with Ochowicz winning the World Championship over the 1975 World Champion, Sue Novara.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

History tells us that the inventor of the "celerifer" was a Frenchman, Count de Sivrac, and that he first climbed aboard his invention, resembling a sawhorse on two wheels, in 1790. By 1890, the bicycle had captured the imagination and pocketbooks of most Europeans, who recognized a sound transportation system when they saw one. In 1868, the first race was held in France. In 1878, the British founded the first national cycling association, an innovation which caught on throughout Europe and which helped propel cycling into the forefront of major European athletic events.

In the U.S. the League of American Wheelmen (LAW), principally an organization for touring (not racing) enthusiasts, was able to attract as many as 100,000 members by 1898. With the advent of the automobile, however, membership declined drastically. By 1902, only 8,000 members remained. LAW now is enjoying a renascence and one of its principal activities is organizing national tours. But its former role as the premier national organization in cycling now has to be shared with the U.S. Cycling Federation (USCF), the national governing body for competitive cycling.

Competitive cycling enjoyed a brief boom in the 1930s, but with U.S. entry into World War II most of the professionals and good amateurs were inducted into the military. The status of cycling as a "minor" sport continued into the 1970s.

The rejuvenation of cycling as a leisure and sporting activity in the U.S. coincided with an event of major international significance — the Arab oil boycott of 1973. Suddenly, Americans realized that owning a bicycle was economical as well as enjoyable. Bike shops and bike paths mushroomed. A 1974 survey conducted by the A.C. Nielsen Company showed that American cyclists numbered more than 65 million.

The revival of cycling as a mode of transportation and a leisure time activity has rekindled its sporting aspects. Although seriously competitive riders represent only a small fraction of all U.S. cyclists, interest in the sport has grown dramatically, and the accomplishments of Sheila Young Ochowicz are only one indication that U.S. riders are bumping up against respectability.

However, because of insufficient funds, and inefficiences in the sport's administration, progress in developing competitive U.S. riders has not kept pace with cycling's growing popularity. Administrators have made valiant attempts to improve their programs in recent years, but are unable to meet the demands imposed on them. Until the sport can correct deficiencies in its organization; overcome restrictive federal, state, and local laws regarding road racing, attract more European competitors to events in this country; send more U.S. cyclists to Europe; hire a permanent staff; and upgrade programs of development at the school-college level, U.S. competitive cycling will fail to reach its full potential.

Events in International Competition

Cycling competition is divided into two types of events, track and road. Track events are contested on velodromes, courses constructed of either wood, asphalt or concrete, with steeply banked turns. Road events generally are run on circular courses, or "loops", along country roads or through parks. Different kinds of bicycles are required for each type of event, and as a rule, riders specialize in either road or track.

Events run in national and international competition vary. Events on the 1976 Olympic Schedule included:

Track

- 1000m time trial: A sprint event run against the clock.
- Individual sprint: Perhaps the most interesting of cycling events from a tactical point of view. Each rider competes in a series of heats to establish entries in the quarterfinals. Winners then are determined by elimination, with pairs of riders competing in a best two of three sprints. Quite often, the first part of the event is a battle of wits. The lead rider, determined by lot, attempts to prevent his opponent from passing him and gaining the advantage on the final sprint. The trailing rider can take advantage of his opponent's "slipstream," or reduced wind resistence, by positioning himself directly behind the front-runner. Strategy is such that both riders sometimes are standing still, each waiting for the other to commit himself (however, though remaining nearly motionless, a rider may not touch the ground without being disqualified). Once such a commitment is made, the sprint to the finish line is on.
- 4000m individual pursuit: Contested by two riders (following elimination of all but 16 cyclists). Riders are positioned on opposite sides of the track, and when the gun sounds, each attempts to overtake his opponent. If one is successful, the race is over. If neither succeeds, the winner is determined by the fastest time in covering the entire course.
- 4000m team pursuit: Essentially the same as the individual pursuit. Teams consist of four riders each. Normally, each cyclist takes turns as the front rider to permit optimum balance between slipstream advantage and rider stamina. The smoothness of transition is a critical factor in overall success. The winner is determined when the third member of a team passes the third member of the opposing team, or when the third member of the fastest team passes the finish line.

Road

- 100km road race: A race run by teams of four against the clock. Each competing team starts at two-minute intervals. If one team passes another, a two-minute gain on time is achieved, and the team pssed is required to drop back at least 25m. If one member of a team drops out, he cannot return. If two drop out, the team is eliminated.
- Individual road race: Run over a circuit. The distance is 175km.

Events not included in the 1976 Olympics but often a part of other international competitions include the criterium, a medium distance, closed circuit race; the cyclecross, a cross-country event; and the 2000m tandem sprint. The last event is conducted in the same manner as the individual sprints, except the bicycles used are built for two competitors. Another type of major international event is the "stage" race, such as the Milk Race in England, or the Tour de France. These events take place over a period of days. Each stage, or day, is like a road race. The winner is determined by totalling the times of each stage for each competitor.

History of World Ranking

Historically, U.S. men riders have not performed well in international cycling competition, nor have they won a medal in the Olympics. U.S. women cyclists on the other hand, have performed admirably in international individual competition, except for the Olympic or Pan American Games, where women do not compete. However, the U.S. is improving its position in international cycling, as demonstrated by a sixth place finish in the individual road event at Montreal, two Gold Medals in the 1975 Pan American Games, a tenth place finish in the 1976 World Professional Championships, and the successful defense of the Women's World Sprint Championships, first won in 1975.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The organization responsible for competitive cycling in this country is the United States Cycling Federation (USCF), incorporated in 1921 as the American Bicycle League of America, Inc. (the name was changed in 1975). USCF, which does not have tax-exempt status, derives its authority from 412 clubs which make up the voting membership. Additionally, the Union Cycliste Internationale (UCI), the world governing body for professional and amateur competitive cycling, recognizes the USCF as its member/representative in the United States.

USCF's basic responsibilities are to promote competitive cycling at the national level, to govern the sport uniformly at all levels, to keep records, and to encourage cycling as a recreational and competitive activity through promotion and education. USCF also acts as a liaison with federal, state and local governments to advance the interests of cyclists.

USCF officers are the President, who is limited to four, one-year terms, three Vice Presidents, Chairman of the Board of Control, the Secretary, and the Treasurer. All are selected to office from and by the 30-member Board of Directors (BOD), which, in turn, is elected by the clubs. Each Vice President represents a geographically-defined area and serves in an ex officio capacity. Each area sends nine other individuals to serve as Board members.

USCF standing committees include Finance, Medical, Classics, Training and Development, International Olympic, Legislation, Championship and Records, among others. Members and the chairmen of each committee are appointed by the President immediately following each annual meeting of the membership.

The Board of Control sanctions various events and is also responsible for registering cyclists who wish to compete under USCF rules. Since it is impossible to compete in international and national events without USCF approval, registration is a requirement.

The Chairman of the Board of Control is the "chief enforcement officer." He is elected by the various state and district members of the Board of Control who in turn are selected by him. This peculiar circular system has drawn no comment even from cycling adherents who have criticized other aspects of the sport's administration.

The Chairman, acting with the appropriate state representative, is further empowered to suspend riders for rules infractions for a period of up to 60 days. Suspension over a longer period requires action by BOD.

The chart on the following page outlines USCF's organizational structure.

USCF voting membership is composed entirely of clubs, each of which sends two delegates to the annual meeting. Clubs also elect the Board of Directors. Thus, the clubs, rather than competitive riders, coaches, or administrators, control the decision-making process at the national level, voting on matters affecting the constitution, bylaws, and general USCF policy.

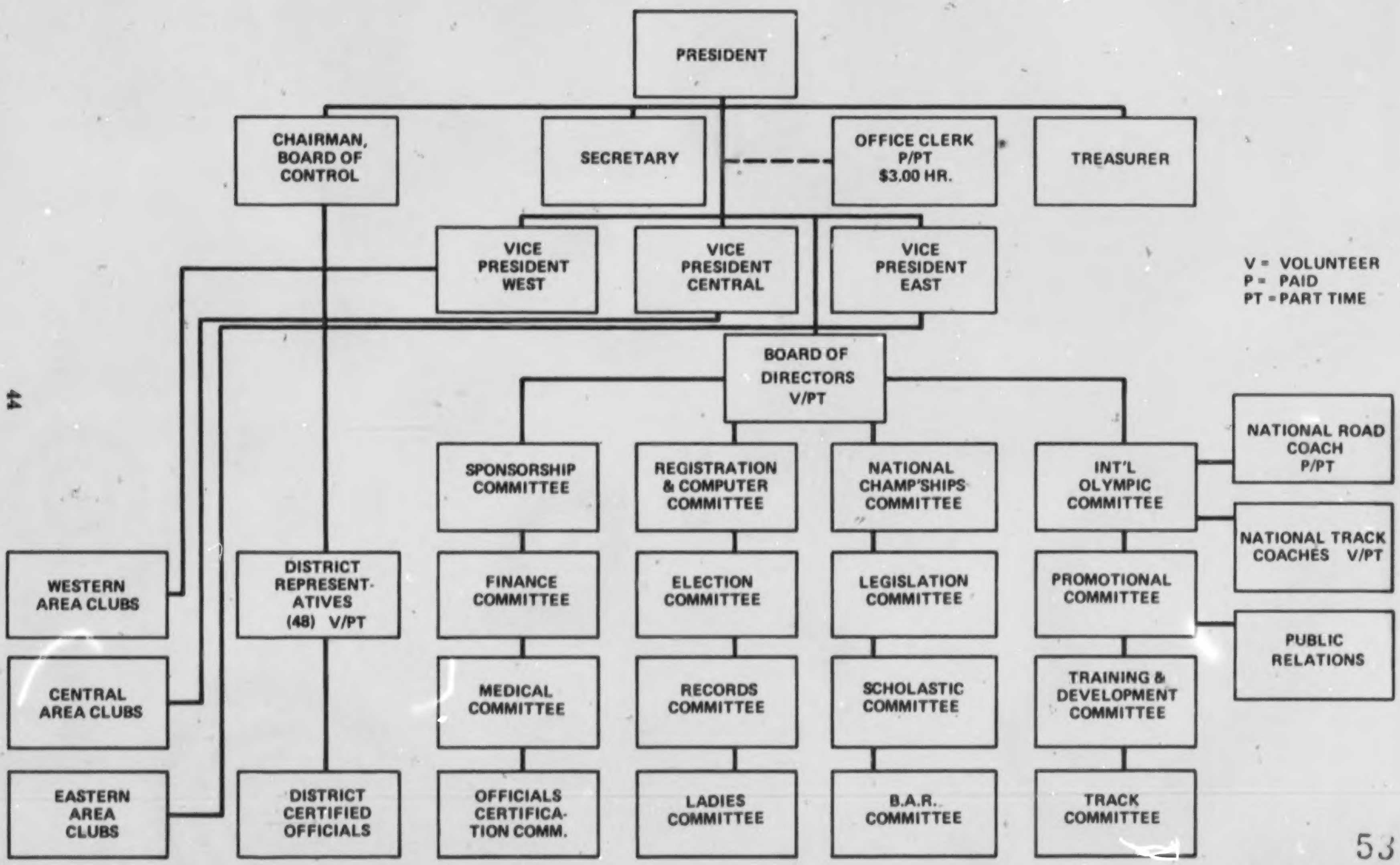
Voting rights are not equally distributed. At annual meetings and in the selection of BOD members, clubs with the most "registrations" control more of the voting power than their colleagues. A registration is defined as the fee a competitive rider must pay his club to participate in USCF-sanctioned events. The amount of the fee depends on the age of the rider. For purposes of voting for members of BOD or at the annual meeting, each club is required to have no less than five senior registrations, or an equivalent dollar amount in the other seven age groups designated by USCF. Thus, a club with five to nine senior registrations (the age group from which most national and international competitors are drawn) is entitled to one vote while a club with 30 or more senior registrations — or the dollar equivalent — is entitled to five votes.

Some Board members feel that the club system, with its weighted voting structure, works against the idea that USCF should represent all interests in cycling. These individuals also feel that the system fosters apathy, perpetuation of power in the hands of a distinct minority, and even fraud.

Evidence that this belief is well-founded can be found in the minutes of the 1976 annual meeting in Louisville, Kentucky, which indicate that barely 200 of the more than 400 clubs bothered to report their registrations to USCF Secretary by December 31, 1975, the deadline for qualifying to vote at the 1976 annual meeting. Further, only 45 clubs were represented at the annual meeting, barely a quorum for doing business (USCF Constitution defines a quorum as one-fifth of the voting membership).

UNITED STATES CYCLING FEDERATION, INC.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART


PRESIDENT
CHAIRMAN, BOARD OF CONTROL
SECRETARY
OFFICE CLERK P/PT $3.00 HR.
TREASURER
VICE PRESIDENT WEST
VICE PRESIDENT CENTRAL
VICE PRESIDENT EAST
V = VOLUNTEER
P = PAID
PT = PART TIME
BOARD OF DIRECTORS V/PT
SPONSORSHIP COMMITTEE
REGISTRATION & COMPUTER COMMITTEE
NATIONAL CHAMP'SHIPS COMMITTEE
INT'L OLYMPIC COMMITTEE
NATIONAL ROAD COACH P/PT
NATIONAL TRACK COACHES V/PT
WESTERN AREA CLUBS
DISTRICT REPRESENTATIVES (48) V/PT
FINANCE COMMITTEE
ELECTION COMMITTEE
LEGISLATION COMMITTEE
PROMOTIONAL COMMITTEE
PUBLIC RELATIONS
CENTRAL AREA CLUBS
MEDICAL COMMITTEE
RECORDS COMMITTEE
SCHOLASTIC COMMITTEE
TRAINING & DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE
EASTERN AREA CLUBS
DISTRICT CERTIFIED OFFICIALS
OFFICIALS CERTIFICATION COMM.
LADIES COMMITTEE
B.A.R. COMMITTEE
TRACK COMMITTEE

Therefore, just over 10 percent of the clubs, representing only a small fraction of the total number of competitive riders, acted on matters of importance to the entire membership. That all clubs, riders and coaches don't take a more active part tends to result in the perennial selection of the same officers and BOD members.

On at least one occasion, the club voting system was used in an attempt to elect BOD members fraudulently. In 1975 USCF found that some of its members were "dummy clubs," paper entities created by individuals desiring BOD membership. Each dummy club was created in accordance with standard procedures. However, fraudulent certifications of membership were obtained from unattached competitive riders and, in some cases, from friends and relatives posing as competitive riders. Registration fees were paid by, or on behalf of, these individuals. The individuals who had established these dummy clubs were then in a position to nominate themselves as members to BOD from their geographic area and, with the weighted voting system working to their advantage, be elected. In fact, however, they were individuals who had bought their position of strength within the voting structure. They represented no athletes, no coaches, no administrators — only themselves.

To its credit, USCF identified and corrected this mis-application of the voting procedures. To help prevent any reoccurrences, the organization has increased registration fees and has instituted a computer system as part of its registration process, designed in part to call attention to any pattern of development indicating the creation of dummy clubs.

Nevertheless, it is still possible — albeit unlikely — for an individual to buy a seat on BOD, provided he has enough money and is careful to avoid detection. Further, the steps taken to eliminate this type of fraud will not correct member apathy, the basic reason why a small and not necessarily representative group of individuals could control a national organization.

Other Major Organizations with Programs

With the exception of LAW, no other national organizations conduct cycling programs, either on a competitive or touring basis. LAW is not a member of USCF, nor does USCF belong to LAW.

Relationship with International Federation

The group which governs both amateur and professional cycling at the international level is the Union Cycliste Internationale (UCI). Until recently, UCI concentrated its attention on European racing, largely ignoring the needs or desires of English-speaking federations.

In recent years, however, UCI has become more responsive to USCF and other national governing bodies from English-speaking nations. USCF officials attribute this emerging awareness in part to the strength of the Canadian cycling organization, which has been particularly assertive in the international arena. Recent U.S. success in international competition also has attracted considerable attention in the cycling world, resulting, so USCF spokesmen believe, in growing respect for American cycling interests.

RESOURCES

Personnel

USCF employs one part-time individual responsible for day-to-day USCF administrative functions. USCF also pays a monthly retainer of $75 to the computer programmer responsible for the registration process. Finally, USCF has retained the services of a public relations firm to solicit sponsorships and to coordinate fund-raising efforts on behalf of competitive cycling throughout the nation.

Finance/Funding

Total USCF income for the year 1975 was approximately $175,000. Of this figure, approximately $61,600 represented registrations paid by competitive riders. An additional $13,100 came from sponsorships and $14,500 from international surcharges, a 25-cent "tax" paid by athletes as part of entry fees to USCF-sanctioned events. This tax goes toward expenses for riders competing internationally. In addition, the USOC Development Committee contributed $35,500 for development, team trials, and transportation to the Pan American Games.

The following table is a more detailed accounting of 1975 income and expenditures. Also included is the 1976 budget as approved at USCF's 1976 annual meeting.

1975 Income and Expenditures — USCF

INCOME	
Club dues	$ 2,900
International licenses	5,300
International travel surcharge	14,500
Miscellaneous*	60,600
Prize certificates	3,400
Registrations	61,600
Sanctions	13,400
Sponsorships	13,100
TOTAL INCOME:	$174,800

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*Includes interest certifications, sale of patches and decals.

EXPENDITURES

Committee Expenses

Classics (Road)	$ 200
Election	800
International Olympic	60,000
Ladies	1,100
Legislation	100
Medical	200
National Championships	25,400
Officials Certification	4,000
Promotion	6,600
Records	1,000
Registration	11,900
Sponsorship	100
Time Trials	1,500
Classics (Track)	400
	$113,300

Officers' Expenses	$ 14,600

Other Expenses

Directors meetings	$ 4,700
Directors' per diem	2,000
District Rep. rebates	7,500
USCF Office expenses	5,800
Rent	1,200
Salaries	2,200
USCF printing	5,400
Miscellaneous*	23,900
Velo News†	14,100
	$ 66,800
TOTAL EXPENSES:	$194,700

USCF 1976 BUDGET

INCOME

Club Dues	$ 19,000
Dealer Memberships	7,000
International Licenses	1,300
International Travel Surcharge	16,000
Miscellaneous**	70,700
Prize Certificates	4,500
Registrations	65,000
Sanctions	23,500
Sponsorship	18,000
TOTAL INCOME:	$225,000

EXPENDITURES

Committee Expenses

Classics	$ 3,500
Collegiate	500
Election	700
Finance	100
International Olympic	71,000
Ladies	1,500
Legislation	100
Medical	200
National Championships	30,000
Officials Certification	5,000
Promotional	5,000
Records	100
Registration	10,000
Sponsorship	300
Training Development	200
Track/Classics	1,000
TOTAL COMMITTEE EXPENSES:	$129,200

Officers' Expenses	$ 14,650

Other Expenses

Directors Meetings	$ 5,000
Directors' Per Diem	2,000
District Representatives' Rebates	13,000
USCF Office Expenses	6,000
USCF Office Rent	750
USCF Office Salaries	3,000
League Printing	10,000
Miscellaneous***	23,400
Patches & Decals	12,000
Public Relations	4,000
TOTAL OTHER EXPENSES:	$ 79,150
TOTAL EXPENSES:	$223,000

Facilities/Equipment

Presently, there are fourteen bicycle tracks (or velodromes) available for competition in this country. Although this number compares unfavorably with the number of tracks in Europe (where it is not uncommon for there to be as many as six velodromes in a city of 300,000), the availability of velodromes in the U.S. is adequate when the number of seriously competing track cyclists is considered. Problems do exist, however, in regions such as Northern California, where comparatively large numbers of track cyclists compete and where another velodrome is needed. An added problem is that none of the tracks in this country are covered (making year-round competition impractical or impossible), and only one meets international competition requirements for banking and length.

Construction costs for velodromes amount to approximately $250,000. Costs are higher if a land purchase is required, as is sometimes the case. Recently, a portable track was introduced to the market, which could be most useful in areas with no track and facilities but with civic centers or other facilities of adequate size.

Purchase and maintenance costs of racing bicycles are largely the responsibility of the individual rider (bikes are made to fit the individual). A good racing bicycle, for either road or track, can cost between $350 and $1,200. Maintenance can run as high as $200-$300 annually, the principal expense being tires.

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*Includes public relations, dealer membership and prize certificates.

†Payment in accordance with contract designating Velo News as official USCF publication.

**Includes interest, certifications and sale of patches and decals.

***Includes prize certificates, dealer memberships, newsletter and dues.

A racing bicycle is a highly technical device, able to multiply a racer's own physical capabilities five times. Different bicycles are used for road and for track. A track bike has one fixed gear, meaning that the rider cannot coast and must pedal constantly. Because of the single gear, a rider is able to "stand still" on the track, a tactic frequently used in sprint races. A track bike has no brakes, since they are not needed and only add weight. The tires on a track bike are lightweight and have a smooth surface to diminish friction. The angles of the frame are different from those on a road bike, and the total weight for the bike is 16-19 pounds.

A road bike has ten gears and a free wheel, allowing the rider to coast. Tires are grooved and are heavier than those used on track bikes. The angles of the frame are larger that those of a track bike for better shock absorption on the irregular road surface. A top quality road bike weighs 20-22 pounds.

Racing rules require a rider to wear a helmet and black tights. Other equipment includes specially designed shoes with holes in the side for ventilation and cleats on the soles to fit in the pedals. Gloves with leather palms are also standard racing equipment.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

As described above, the number of competitive riders is increasing, commensurate with the rise of interest in cycling. More than 11,000 riders and over 400 clubs have registered for USCF-sanctioned competitions.

Athlete Development

USCF's efforts to develop more competitive cyclists in this country are hampered by inadequate funds and by the lack of cycling programs in the nation's school/college community, where dwindling budgets prevent funding for so-called "minor" sports. Only in the last year has USCF established training camps for Olympic teams.

Nevertheless, USCF sponsors several programs designed to attract new participants. Member clubs offer membership to individuals in eight groups, divided according to age and sex. These groups are:

— Senior men — 18 years of age and older,

— Senior Women — 15 years and over,

— Junior men — 15-17 years,

— Intermediate boys — 12-14 years,

— Intermediate girls — 12-14 years,

— Midget boys — 8-11 years,

— Midget girls — 8-11 years, and

— Veterans — 40 years and over.

Each age group has local, regional and national competitions and championships. National champions in each age group may compete in any open event sanctioned by USCF without paying the usual entry fee and may compete in the succeeding championship without having to qualify in state trials (in those championships with state trials).

USCF uses a system of "categories" to determine the racing qualifications of a rider. USCF by-laws define a Category IV rider as a novice in any age group, who has placed either first, second or third in three open events or was among the top six finishers in six open events and national championship qualifying events.

A Category III rider is a senior registering for a USCF racing license for the first time, or a junior passing from his age group to the senior age group.

A senior or a junior may become a Category II rider by placing first, second, or third in any of three qualifying events, or by finishing among the top six riders in six qualifying events. The same process is used to determine a Category I rider, which is composed only of competitors in the senior age group.

In addition to the costs of purchasing and maintaining bicycles for racing competition, a major barrier to the development of more competitive riders in this country has been the cost of transportation to and from events. The cost of shipping equipment can be a definite deterrent to riders who wish to compete nationally and internationally. Although USCF has a small fund to help defray these costs, income generated is far short of what is needed.

To encourage rider participation, USCF has adopted a liberal interpretation of the rules of amateurism. In spite of its own constitution, which incorporates the stricter international definition of amateurism, many races which receive USCF sanction offer prizes of items which easily can be converted to cash. Some events award televisions and other saleable articles. But others, such as the Atlantic City Pro-Am (amateurs can compete with professionals, provided they receive permission), offer a first place prize of $3,000 in savings bonds. Smaller prizes are awarded to riders who finish as low as tenth place.

Some U.S. riders are hired by bicycle manufacturers and other corporations and paid primarily to participate as members of factory-sponsored teams. Competitors who receive such awards and who compete for such teams have retained their amateur status, and some competed in the 1976 Olympics.

In spite of the compelling monetary aspects of some amateur competition in this country, the earning power of U.S. riders lags behind that of their European counterparts, who often earn salaries by competing for their clubs. So lucrative were the rewards of competition that UCI, at a recent meeting, adopted a new rule limiting the winnings of any amateur rider to $200 per day. This rule was approved to protect the financial interests of professional cycling. USCF, it should be noted, opposed this new rule, arguing that it would be a disincentive for U.S. riders who could not afford the costs of transportation on such meager winnings.

Coach Development

Until recently, there was no national effort to develop a pool of expert coaches. However, USCF has adopted a plan (not yet implemented for lack of funds) to create a system to train coaches from the club to the international level. Conceived and supported by the track coach and team manager of the 1976 Olympic team, the plan would have all coaches certified and licensed by USCF. Club coaches are the basic resource for coach development since there are no college coaches. Qualified persons are eligible for promotion to district coach. National coaches and assistants are selected from among the most qualified district coaches. A volunteer Managing Director is responsible for the coaching network.

Training Of Officials

USCF is the only body in the U.S. with authority to certify cycling officials. Applicants for certification must meet standards imposed by USCF and must pass written qualifying exams.

Only two Americans are recognized by UCI as international officials. At Montreal one was the first U.S. official to take part in the Olympic Games. One reason there are not more U.S. officials in international competition is the cost of travelling abroad, for which officials are not compensated, either by USCF or UCI. Another reason is that, until recently, the international official qualifying exam was offered only in French.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Overall, U.S. cycling is enjoying unprecedented popularity. There is little reason to suspect that the numbers of Americans who own and ride bicycles as a leisure activity will diminish and on the surface, competitive cycling ought to profit directly from this revival. Unfortunately, USCF seems unable to seize the initiative to develop the funds and competitors necessary to propel cycling into the ranks of the major amateur sports.

Apathy, inordinate demands placed on volunteer officials, lack of permanent staff, insufficient funds, and club control of the sport, are all reasons why USCF has not become a more aggressive national governing body. More input not only from the clubs, but from competitors and coaches as well, cannot help but inprove the administration of the sport, especially by eliminating the threat of the "dummy club system." As long as individuals in competitive cycling, principally the athletes, feel there is no mechanism to provide for representation of their views, apathy will continue to permeate the sport, leaving its administration in the hands of a small, albeit dedicated, minority.

Although proposals have been submitted to USCF for a "national team" designed to stimulate the development of more competitive riders, they have not been approved for budgetary reasons. However, a review of USCF priorities and, as appropriate, a reallocation of presently available funds might overcome this obstacle. For example, a review of expenditures for 1975 indicates that approximately $21,000 was spent for travel, expenses, and meetings of BOD and officers. Undoubtedly, some consideration for the time and the labors of officers and BOD members is in order. Nevertheless, in view of the critical shortage of available funds, consideration ought to be given to allocating more money to areas such as the development of a national team.

A major inhibitor in USCF's fund raising efforts has been its failure to gain tax-exempt status. With the new federal tax law, designed to make it easier for NGBs to obtain this status, USCF should renew its efforts in this area.

At the same time, USCF and other interested organizations should encourage the construction of facilities which conform to international length and banking standards, as well as velodromes which are suitable for year-round use. The availability of such structures would be a key factor in attracting more international events and competitors to the U.S., which, in turn, could enhance domestic development efforts.

Cycling administrators at the national and local levels are clearly individuals of good faith and purpose, dedicated to the sport. It is equally clear, however, that major changes in many elements of USCF structure should be accomplished if its administration is to become more efficient and responsive. Whether such changes will be made remains to be seen. Nevertheless, U.S. competitive cycling will continue to grow. USCF must respond to this growth by abandoning outdated management systems and adopting a more purposeful, aggressive, and representative policy, one which will better serve riders, coaches, and the sport itself.

DIVING

In 1968 Air Force Captain Micki King was in first place going into her next to last dive at the Mexico City Olympics when she hit the springboard and broke her arm. That dive dropped her to second place by two points. Although she courageously continued in the competition, King finished fourth. Four years later, however, this gallant American returned to take the Gold Medal in Munich.

King's persistence and eventual victory typifies American performance in diving since its introduction in the 1904 Olympics. Over the years the U.S. has been the single most successful country in both men's and women's international diving, despite the fact that the number of active competitors, officials, and coaches in the U.S. is small and financial resources are limited.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

American success has been due largely to the determination of athletes and the cooperation of their coaches in producing a strong list of dives. (The U.S. has made significant contributions in the way of new dives for international competition; in fact, the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) diving book contains more recognized executions than does the international book.) In addition, through the efforts of AAU committees for both senior and age group divers, a few U.S. squads have been able to compete abroad, before international judges. However, full development of American divers has been hindered by a number of obstacles:

- Inadequate financial support,
- Lack of competition for post-graduate (non-military) athletes,
- Lack of qualified judges,
- Lack of 10-meter towers, and,
- Inadequate administrative staff.

Several multi-sport organizations conduct diving programs in the U.S. These programs vary in both scope and degree of sophistication, but most make a direct contribution to the development of American divers. Although diving is an integral part of the swimming program at most colleges, teams are small and few coaches are qualified to instruct high caliber divers.

Diving competitions generally are not well attended in the U.S. with the exception of the AAU National Championship finals or the finals in the Olympic Games after preliminary rounds have eliminated all but the best divers. However, because of the beauty of individual executions and U.S. success internationally, television recently has covered not only the Olympics but also the national championships and selected international competitions held in this country. A number of articulate American divers and coaches provide the media with excellent technical commentary and assistance.

Events in International Competition

Men and women compete in two events internationally: the three-meter springboard and the 10-meter platform. Nationally, the AAU, the NCAA and some other groups also hold competitions in the one-meter springboard.

In international competition, divers must go through preliminary and final rounds, performing ten dives in each round for women and eleven dives for men. The leading eight divers in the preliminary round proceed to the finals. In the AAU National Championships, preliminaries, semi-finals, and finals are held with both men and women divers completing eleven dives in each round.

History of World Ranking

The U.S. consistently has been a major diving power since an American won the men's springboard competition at the 1904 Olympics. Women's springboard was introduced in 1920 at the Antwerp Olympics and platform diving for both men and women followed in 1928. The U.S. has continued to dominate Olympic competition, winning about 68 percent of the medals awarded for diving since 1920: 78.5 percent of springboard and 58 percent of platform medals. The U.S. record in recent Pan American Games competition is even more impressive. Americans have won eight of 12 possible Gold Medals since 1967. The heritage of U.S. diving in the Olympics for the period 1920-1976 in percentages of medals won is summarized below:

Men	Gold %	Silver %	Bronze %	Average %
Springboard	92	77	69	79
Platform	69	62	54	62

Women	Gold %	Silver %	Bronze %	Average %
Springboard	85	69	77	77
Platform	62	62	38	54

In 1976 the U.S. had two Olympic springboard champions and in 1975 won Gold Medals in the women's platform and men's springboard at the FINA (Federation Internationale de Natation Amateur) World Games in Cali, Colombia. Leading countries in 1976 were: Mexico, Sweden, USSR, East Germany, Italy, USA and Holland. Retirements following Montreal indicate that the USA, USSR and East Germany will be the recognized diving powers going into the Moscow Olympic Games.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

Men's swimming and diving were included in the original jurisdiction of the AAU when it was founded in 1888. Women's swimming and diving joined the AAU in 1914.

A major portion of AAU diving administration is done by the following committees, made up of parents, current and former athletes, and coaches:

- Senior: Women's
  Men's
  International Competition (sub-committee)
  Joint Men's and Women's Diving Rules
- Olympic Games Diving Committee
- Age Group: International Competition (sub-committee) Diving Rules
- Junior Olympics
- Masters
- Other sub-committees:
  - Pins and Contributions
  - Diving Director and Records
  - Judges Selections and Certification
  - Diving Photography and Publicity

The AAU has eight voting athlete representatives on the new Olympic Committee, rules, masters, senior men's and women's joint committees and certain other working committees. These athletes are active and vocal and all are current or recently retired national caliber competitors.

The Olympic Games Diving Committee is responsible for selecting the Pan American and Olympic Games teams and for preparing divers for international competition. Established at the annual AAU Convention in October 1976, this committee consists of 35 representatives: 14 from the AAU (six AAU coaches, three AAU committee chairmen or delegates to the Executive Committee, five at-large), three from NCAA, three from AIAW, one from NAIA, one from NFSHSA, one from YMCA, representatives to FINA and the Amateur Swimming Union of the Americas (ASUA),[1] five former Olympians, two current Olympians, and two international judges. Members of this committee cannot represent more than one organization.

The NCAA objects to what it calls a disproportionate allocation of positions in favor of the AAU and has refused to send its three representatives to this committee. The Diving Committee, therefore, will invite representatives from NCAA institutions to fill the spots allocated to the NCAA. Committee spokesmen point out that many of the so-called AAU representatives on the committee also are employees of NCAA institutions and that, therefore, all diving interests are represented.

The NCAA's official stance of non-compliance in this instance, coupled with the willingness of NCAA coaches to serve on the AAU committee in any case, is symptomatic of the conflict. That is, despite disagreements at the national level, officials in both organizations nevertheless cooperate in the interests of the sport.

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[1] ASUA is responsible for organizing aquatic events at the Pan American Games. It is a member of FINA. Each of the aquatic disciplines is included in the Pan American Games. The U.S. sends an elected delegate for each discipline to ASUA. ASUA conducts the Pan American Games in accordance with FINA rules. The current president of ASUA is a Mexican. A U.S. delegate served as president from 1968-71.

The goals of the AAU diving program are:

- To conduct national, regional and local competitions;
- To obtain international exposure for the better divers as well as for coaches and officials;
- To season divers of all ages through domestic and international competition;
- To maintain the U.S. heritage in diving in terms of both success and innovation; and
- To obtain corporate sponsorship to complement USOC development funds and to finance age group diving.

The international competition sub-committee and the Olympic Games Diving Committee establish four-year plans and budgets at the end of each Olympiad. Funds used to implement these plans are supplied primarily by the USOC. AAU diving administrators have made many unsuccessful attempts to obtain a national long-term corporate sponsor. Age group diving secured sponsorship (Sarah Coventry, Inc., $15,000 in 1976) but this relationship has been terminated due to a change in corporate marketing strategy.

AAU volunteers and coaches have indicated to the Commission staff that diving lacks funds and sufficient professional administrative support. At this writing no single AAU employee is assigned to handle diving administrative matters.

Other Major Organizations

Groups which conduct diving programs include: NCAA, NAIA, NJCAA, AIAW, YWCA, YMHA, and NFSHSA. Each is a multi-sport organization with its own rules committee and each conducts its own national championships. However, since few divide diving and swimming programs, it is difficult to gauge the total number of active U.S. divers. Included among the qualifying events for the Olympic and Pan American Games Trials are the national championships of the NCAA, AIAW, and NAIA. All of these groups except the NCAA send representatives to the AAU. There are no apparent conflicts in diving among these groups or between any group and the AAU. Most coaches function in some aspects of each program because their athletes and/or employers participate in all programs.

Relationship with International Federation

FINA is responsible for the conduct of international competition in swimming and diving, including the selection of judges from among those it recognizes as qualified. The International Diving Committee (IDC) advises FINA on technical matters. The U.S. is entitled to one representative to FINA who is nominated by the AAU Men's and Women's Senior Diving Committee. This individual, if approved by FINA, serves a four-year term. FINA may reject a nominee and select its own representative to the U.S., but the U.S. can decline to be represented at FINA.

RESOURCES

Personnel

Prior to October 1976, one AAU administrator was responsible for men and women's swimming and diving. (This individual estimated that he spent 10 percent of his time on diving in 1975/76). Following the AAU convention in 1976, the Aquatic administrator was replaced by a competitive swimming administrator. One of the remaining AAU sports administrators will assume responsibility for diving but at this writing this person has not been designated.

Coaches in the U.S. form the sport's most active and vocal resource. Coaches are on all AAU administrative committees, arrange for and conduct diving competitions, certify judges, and establish criteria for the selection of national teams. In addition, they are active in the programs of groups such as the YMCA and NCAA. Many coaches, though employees of NCAA colleges, are active in AAU programs. Through this overlap the NCAA continues to assist in AAU diving matters.

An AAU administrator is responsible for coordinating all Junior Olympic sports programs, of which diving is one. There were 37 Junior Olympic meets for boys and girls in 1975/76, 14 regional meets, and one national championship. These meets are conducted with the help of AAU volunteers at the local level.

Volunteers (parents of current or former divers, athletes and other interested individuals) are essential to the success of U.S. diving programs. Volunteers serve as committee members, as representatives to international conferences and technical committees, as judges, as team managers, and as sponsors for and organizers of diving competitions.

The AAU Diving Committee has a subcommittee which selects and certifies judges. This committee can nominate 49% of the judges at the national championships; the remaining 51% are nominated by the judges committee of the sponsor of the event. Most meet budgets do not make allowances for judges' travel and room and board. Therefore, judges in domestic competitions tend to be those who are available locally or who can afford to travel to the meet. Approximately 30 judges have been certified through the AAU procedure. A grandfather clause provides that individuals may continue to judge who served as judges prior to the implementation of this program.

Many coaches serve as judges at AAU meets even when their athletes are competing. Judging is so important and so disputable that coaches insist on playing dual roles at important competitions, both coaching and judging. This is necessary because there is a lack of independent knowledgeable individuals, qualified to judge domestic diving competitions. Coaches believe their athletes prefer to be judged by knowledgeable persons rather than by inexperienced volunteers. The Judges Certification Committee meets the evening prior to an AAU contest to select judges to assist.

Facilities

A diving tank should be at least 4.5 meters deep (approximately 15 feet) and equipped with at least one- and three-meter springboards and five- and 10-meter platforms. Although more than 200 men and women are declared tower divers, there are only eight 10-meter platforms in this country suitable for international caliber training and competition. By Spring 1977 there will be nine. Because of the paucity of facilities, athletes interested in tower diving often are forced to live away from home to have access to a tower. The alternative is to concentrate on the springboard event. The Organization Chart on the following page shows that the U.S. has been consistently more successful in springboard competition than in platform diving, a record perhaps related to the lack of suitable towers. In comparison, Canada has approximately 16 platforms while the Europeans are reported to be building 10 to 15 facilities a year.

U.S. colleges currently have most of the adequate diving facilities in the country. However, collegiate divers often are forced to arrange their training schedules around swim team schedules and sometimes must travel long distances to train in facilities comparable to those in which they will be competing. Athletes not associated with colleges usually have access to facilities through their coaches or clubs, but this often means commuting long distances to train.

Finance/Funding

Unfortunately, the AAU does not itemize diving income and expenditures. The following approximation was derived from information supplied by the AAU national office and the USOC.

AAU DIVING SOURCES OF FUNDS

Estimates for 1975/76

Registrations[1]	$ 2,373.50
Competitions	1,000.00
USOC (Development, Olympic and Pan American Teams, Meetings, Team Preparation, Trials)	50,942.00[2]
Sarah Coventry, Inc. (age group diving)	15,000.00[3]
T.V. allocation	2,500.00
Miscellaneous donations	1,360.00
	$73,175.50

Additional revenue is generated by local sponsors or promoters who receive sanctions to conduct invitational meets. It is estimated that an additional $40,000 is spent annually on national championships and international events. This amount is not included in the $73,175.50.

Since the AAU's TV contract usually includes some diving coverage, the sport can be said to generate revenue for the AAU by being included in the package sold to the network. Funds from Sarah Coventry, Inc., were used for age group diving and were paid directly to the team as reimbursement for expenses.

AAU DIVING USES OF FUNDS

Estimate for 1975/76

Competition	
AAU	$ 4,000
USOC	26,700
Administration	
USOC	242
AAU	5,264
Development	
USOC	24,000
Total Uses	$60,206

The AAU supplies only administrative funds to associations and committees while the USOC and sponsors directly reimburse athletes, officials, and coaches for expenses connected with the national trials and the national team. Therefore, USOC funds flow through on the basis of approved and designated expenditures. AAU committee members must pay their own expenses to attend meetings, a factor which can adversely affect attendance. Unfortunately many coaches and athletes interested in contributing to the AAU diving program and who are elected to committee positions cannot afford to attend all meetings.

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[1] Fifty cents of the athlete registration fee goes to the diving committee for "sport participation" uses. As of December 31, 1975 — 4,747 divers were registered with the AAU.

[2] Source: USOC Development Committee. USOC funds are not cash grants given to the AAU or the USOC Diving Committee. They are appropriated funds used to reimburse athletes and officials for approved expenses.

[3] Not continued in 1976/77.

Costs to Athletes

Diving does not require expensive equipment, but athletes often must travel considerable distances to find adequate coaching and facilities. Meeting the costs of this travel, in addition to coaches' fees, can be difficult for post-collegiate, non-military athletes. Even divers with college scholarships (and very few diving scholarships are available, particularly for women) are subject to this problem in the summer if their coach is not the coach at their college.

Fees to attend diving camps are another significant expense (see *Athlete Development*). No scholarships to these camps are available.

DEVELOPMENT

Athletes, coaches, judges and other volunteers need to be kept informed of new techniques in training and coaching, new dives, and alternate executions. They also need to know results of domestic and international competition and schedules of significant events. "Hi Diver," a newsletter for U.S. diving, was cancelled in Spring 1976. *Diving World*, a quarterly, began publication in August 1976. A comprehensive publication for diving is critical to the development of U.S. diving and *Diving World* is attempting to fill this need.

Athlete Development

High schools and AAU clubs provide the main development programs for diving. At YMCAs across the country, diving is sometimes a separate program and sometimes incorporated into the swimming program.

Further development occurs in summer camps. Between six and ten a year are conducted by leading diving coaches, at a cost to divers of between $125 and $150 per week. This includes instruction, room, board, and pool fees. Some camps offer their facilities to proven divers, others offer them on a first come-first served basis.

At one camp the eldest diver in 1976 was 55 years of age. More typically, however, ages at this camp range from 10 to 25 with a majority being 14 to 16. The camp accommodates a maximum of 50 athletes a week, working in three groups for two sessions a day. The average stay is two to three weeks per athlete. Using a three-week average attendance and including an average air fare, the cost to the athlete or the athlete's family is about $650. Clinics sponsored by the American Diving Coaches Association also are held from time to time for the benefit of coaches and athletes.

One barrier to the full development of U.S. divers (in addition to the lack of 10-meter platforms), is a lack of high quality competition for the non-collegiate athlete, especially in non-Olympic years. A few nationally-ranked divers are selected for international trips which provide additional competition, but most U.S. athletes must do without the experience necessary for rapid improvement. Recently some USOC funds have been available to finance international trips for divers. Swimmers often go instead of divers because funds are available to swimming from a corporate sponsor.

Another difficulty faced by post-college athletes in all sports, is that of trying to prepare adequately for international competition while remaining employed. Of 11 divers on the 1976 Olympic Team, only two were not college students. Of these two, one was a member of the Armed Services. This athlete was permitted to take time out for training (both on and away from base) and competition. The other, a schoolteacher, was unable to obtain employment and sacrificed income in 1975-76 to prepare for Montreal. Fortunately she made the team and qualified for the finals of the three-meter springboard.

Coaches Development

There is no formal and extensive program for the development of coaches in this country. In 1975 two clinics were conducted by the American Diving Coaches Association. This association has not established certification or training programs but serves as a forum for the exchange of ideas. It could become a more professional organization, particularly if administrative support were provided so that coaches development could receive more attention. However, present indications are that competition is a higher priority for coaches than structuring and conducting coaches development programs. International trips provide an opportunity for U.S. coaches to exchange information with their foreign colleagues regarding new dives and coaching and training techniques.

Officials Development

The AAU's judges certification program includes a written and practical test. As mentioned earlier, judges may continue who were active before this program was put into effect.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

Each organization with a diving program establishes its own rules of competition and eligibility. The AAU list of approved dives includes certain dives not in the FINA list. Certain technical distinctions make AAU diving rules different from FINA rules. The YMCA uses NCAA rules which are not identical to those of the AAU. In general, AIAW and NFSHSA use AAU rules.

Some high school and NCAA rules restrict divers and other athletes from competing. In 1976 an NCAA regulation prohibiting NCAA coaches from working with high school seniors effectively precluded attendance by the latter at a Florida diving camp. Both the Minnesota and Missouri high school federations require that summer camps be approved by the state federation. Minnesota also prohibits athletes from attending summer camps for more than two weeks.

Domestic Competition

The AAU network makes several competitions available to divers. Two national championships for both men and women — the Indoor (spring) and the Outdoor (summer) — are held each year. Athletes qualify for the nationals based on placings in regional and zone competitions as well as through various college championships. Other AAU national championships include the masters, age group, and Junior Olympics.

Local, regional, and national championships also are conducted by multi-sport organizations such as the NCAA, AIAW, NJCAA, NAIA, YMCA, and NFSHSA.

International Competition

U.S. divers have the following international opportunities:

- Olympic and Pan American Games,
- Age group trips to Europe (recently these have occurred annually),
- CAN-AM-MEX Championships (an annual contest with Canada, USA, and Mexico),
- CAN-AM-MEX Age Group Championships (annually commencing 1976),
- World Age Group Championships (annually),
- World University Games (every four years),
- International dual meets (annually, mainly with European and North American countries), and
- American Cup (annually, invited national teams).

While Pan American and Olympic Teams usually are selected at trials independent of the national championships, teams for other international competitions are chosen on the basis of national ranking, placings at the most recent national championship, or availability.

The AAU Senior International Diving Competition Sub-Committee is responsible for selecting divers, coaches and managers. Coaches are chosen according to an annual ranking under a joint system based on their athletes' performances at designated meets. Managers and chaperones usually are selected from a list of eligible volunteers, graded according to service contributions, but the Olympic diving committee in 1976 selected another coach to double as manager. This committee also designates the specific meets and dates that will be used to select all national teams.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The U.S. has a long history of success in international diving. In addition to winning the lion's share of Olympic medals, United States divers and coaches consistently have led the world in refining techniques and creating new dives. United States diving programs continue to produce new champions each Olympiad. Athletes have a role in AAU administration, sitting as observers or as voting members on AAU diving committees, and most college athletes have access to adequate facilities and coaching. Greater progress could be made among a broader base of participants, however, if the following steps were taken:

- Provide AAU diving committees with professional administrative support;
- Build more diving platforms;
- Increase funds to provide regular international competition for elite divers, particularly in non-Olympic years;
- Increase the numbers of knowledgeable certified diving judges, as well as funds to provide objective panels of judges for domestic competitions;
- Attempt to resolve the dilemma of the post-college, non-military athlete who tries to continue training and competing despite job and family obligations;
- Conduct more summer diving camps within the financial reach of potential competitive divers, and supply scholarship funds for needy divers to attend camps; and
- Produce a frequent specialized publication informing athletes and coaches of results and techniques.

The caliber of U.S. diving performance internationally is achieved despite inadequate funding and administrative support at home. Diving administration would be improved by better coordination, especially in scheduling, among all organizations running diving programs. In addition, a conscious effort is needed to develop well-defined goals and objectives. International competitive opportunities, training camp subsidies, funding for judges' travel to domestic competitions, a diving publication, an instructional film library — all could be pursued effectively by the diving administration given increased financial support.

EQUESTRIAN

Equestrian sports are unique among international events because of the pairing of an athlete and an animal into a competitive team. Unlike inanimate "equipment" in other sports, horses require development and training very similar to (and often more expensive than) that of the athlete. Few horses have the potential to become world class, and those that do require the very best training, veterinary care, nutrition, exercise, and handling. The expense involved in buying and maintaining a horse of this caliber is prohibitive to most potentially world class riders in the U.S., particularly when all but dressage riders need at least two and sometimes four or five horses for training.

In the U.S., a type of symbiosis has arisen which partially alleviates this financial problem. Farms with top-ranking horses seek out promising and proven athletes to ride their horses in exhibition and competition, thus to attract attention to their horses and to increase the prices that can be charged for them. In return, the most accomplished athletes have some of the best riding stock in the U.S. available to them for training and competition.

However, the number of farms willing to provide these opportunities for outstanding riders has been declining over the years and available stock is limited primarily to three-day eventers and jumpers. Dressage riders must find other sources of riding stock. The United States Equestrian Team (USET) partially fills this void with its stables of a few donated horses but increasing costs make these more difficult to maintain.

The biggest obstacles to improved (or continued) international equestrian performance are: 1) matching top horses with excellent riders and 2) financing the necessary purchase, maintenance, training and transport of horses.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

The U.S. is among the leading countries in international equestrian competition, particularly in jumping and three-day eventing although the U.S. won a team Bronze Medal in dressage in the 1976 Olympics. The number of competitors has grown over the past ten years.

Domestically the sport is an uncommonly well-organized and efficiently managed operation. With the exception of recent controversy over an Olympic horse's eligibility to participate in the Games, the national governing body, the American Horse Shows Association (AHSA), and USET work together most constructively and cooperatively. Athletes (particularly those under 30) would like greater representation in the management of the sport; but despite this valid concern, the two organizations have interlocking directorates and clearly defined lines of jurisdiction which work well in administering equestrian activities.

Financing equestrian programs, particularly for USET, is a more difficult problem. Fielding an Olympic equestrian team is more expensive than it is in most other Olympic sports because of the training, medical, maintenance, and transportation costs of the horses. Traditional sources of funds (primarily individual donations) are decreasing, while inflation is causing expenses to rise.

Events in International Competition

There are three types of competitive events in international and Olympic competition: Grand

Prix Dressage, Prize of Nations Jumping, and Three-day eventing.

Grand Prix Dressage

Dressage is based on the principles and traditions of the classic school of riding. It is an exhibition of control, obedience, balance, and suppleness. Horse and rider are both judged as they go through a series of compulsory exercises performed in a ring within a prescribed time period. Exercises which shall be compulsory are determined the year after each Olympic Games.

Prize of Nations Jumping

This involves the rider guiding his horse over a course with 16-20 formidable obstacles. Scoring is based strictly on two things: the performance of the horse in clearing each of the jumps and the ability of the entry to complete the course in the time allowed. Course layout is not revealed to competitors until the day of competition.

Three-Day Event

The demands placed on both horse and rider simulate historical requirements for military couriers. The same rider and horse must perform three tests over as many days. The first day is a dressage test, similar to the Grand Prix Dressage event. The second day is an endurance test, consisting of five parts to be run consecutively, without a break and within time limits: two are over roads and tracks, one segment is over a steeplechase, one goes across country with many fixed obstacles, and one is run on the flat, for an approximate total of twenty miles. The third day is a jumping competition conducted over twelve obstacles; its major purpose is to determine whether horse and rider have adequate reserves of energy to complete this test after the first two days.

History of World Ranking

The U.S. has won medals in the Olympic Games as shown below. Medal counts are shown only for the year 1948 on, since prior to that time the U.S. fielded an almost exclusively military team.

Prize of Nations Jumping
— Individual performances:
  - Gold Medal — 1968
  - Bronze Medal — 1972

Team performances:
  - Bronze Medal — 1952
  - Silver Medal — 1960
  - Silver Medal — 1972

Grand Prix Dressage
— Individual performances — no medals
— Team performances
  - Bronze Medal — 1948
  - Bronze Medal — 1972
  - Bronze Medal — 1976

Three-Day Event
— Individual performances
  - Bronze Medal — 1952
  - Silver Medal — 1972
  - Gold and Silver Medals — 1976
— Team performance
  - Bronze Medal — 1952
  - Silver Medal — 1960
  - Silver Medal — 1972
  - Gold Medal — 1976

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The American Horse Shows Association (AHSA) is the recognized governing body for equestrian sports in the U.S. and has been the internationally-recognized U.S. representative since 1933, when the U.S. Army Cavalry turned over the franchise. However, U.S. teams for international tours and competitions were selected and fielded by the U.S. Army Cavalry from 1912 to 1948 and then by the U.S. Equestrian Team, Inc. (USET), from 1950 to the present. AHSA is a Group A member of the USOC.

AHSA is an organization established primarily by and for show managers, not riders. This is reflected in the two types of AHSA members. Group membership is divided into eight classes:

- regular shows
- local shows
- combined training events
- dressage competitions
- driving competitions
- honorary shows
- affiliated associations
- riding establishments

Individual membership contains three classes:

- senior
- junior
- affiliated

Group members number over 1,000 while there are more than 18,000 individual members. Annual dues are \$7.50 for juniors, \$15.00 for seniors, \$50.00 for affiliated associations and \$350.00 for individual life memberships.

AHSA is organized into 12 zones, following state boundaries. Each zone elects a chairman who sits on the national AHSA Board of Directors.

In addition to the 12 Regional Chairmen, remaining board members are at least 13, but no more than 40, directors-at-large elected by Individual Senior Members. All directors serve three-year terms. At present, 19 of the 52 AHSA Directors also serve on the 43-person USET Board of Directors. Although the practice of dual directorship allows for coordinated programs, some active riders complain that they are not directly represented on the AHSA Board.

AHSA officers, chosen annually by the Board of Directors, include: Chairman of the Board, President, First Vice President, Vice Presidents (at least as many as there are regions), Secretary, and Treasurer.

AHSA has a number of national-level committees responsible for well-defined areas of AHSA operations. The Executive Committee has the power to transact all business between meetings of the Board of Directors except business over which the Board alone has express jurisdiction (e.g., amending the constitution). The Executive Committee, appointed annually by the Chairman of Board and reviewed by the full Board, is composed of at least fifteen directors, three of whom are Regional Committee Chairmen. A quorum of one-third is needed to conduct Executive Committee business.

Other national-level committees include: Committee on Protests, Charges, and Hearings; Judges Committee; Stewards Committee (a steward is the AHSA representative at a show, whose duty is to point out any non-enforcement of AHSA rules); Drugs and Medications Committee; Riding Establishment Committee; Exhibitors' Committee; Veterinary Advisory Committee; Professional Horsemen's Committee; Show Management Committee; and Regional Committees.

Finally, the Federation Equestre Internationale (FEI) Rules and Regulations Committee, appointed by the President with Executive Committee approval, approves and schedules all International Events under FEI rules. It also promotes and assists shows operated under FEI rules.

In addition, with the approval of the Executive Committee, the AHSA President annually appoints Individual members to "Division" Committees. The term Division does not refer to geographic areas, but to specific competitive disciplines under AHSA jurisdiction. There are presently 26 of these committees, but only three are directly responsible for events included in the Olympic roster. These are: Combined Training Events Committee (Three-Day), 15 members; Dressage Committee, 14 members; and Jumper Committee, 10 members. There are few active competitors on these committees, and no young riders.

Headquartered in New York City, AHSA's administrative (paid) staff includes an Executive Secretary, a director for drugs and medication, a public relations director, a bookkeeper and an editor for *Horse Show* Magazine. From this office AHSA publishes pamphlets (rules, tests, guidelines, etc.), offers films (educational, entertaining), and issues its magazine.

International equestrian matters are the province of USET, although AHSA does communicate directly with the international federation and provides supportive services as necessary. For instance, AHSA is doing administrative work for the 1978 World Three-Day Event Championships in Tennessee.

Other Major National Organizations

Several national-level organizations conduct programs in international equestrian disciplines. Many upper level administrators are active in two or more of these organizations, a "double-hatting" which seems effectively to preclude organizational conflicts.

U.S. Equestrian Team, Inc., (USET)

USET is a non-profit, tax-exempt organization founded in 1950. It was created to fill the void left when the U.S. Army Cavalry, which had selected and furnished horses and riders for all international events from 1912 to 1948, was dissolved. USET was given two specific functions: to enter teams in the annual fall international circuit and to prepare and send teams to the Olympic and Pan American Games. In addition, USET was asked to develop international-caliber riders and to obtain the use of world-class horses. At first, USET was loaned horses by the U.S. Army, but now uses animals either loaned or donated by civilians. Current membership figures are not available, but in 1974 there were 2,169 individual USET members (there are no group memberships).

USET has headquarters in two offices, one in Gladstone, New Jersey, and the other in South Hamilton, Massachusetts. At each location there is a USET training facility. Dressage and jumping training is conducted at the Gladstone area, which is rented by USET. Three-day event training is conducted at the Hamilton area, which was donated to the team by a member.

USET selects and trains riders in the three Olympic disciplines for all national and international shows. It also conducts annual training sessions in these events to prepare for international competitions. National competitions are used as trials for the selection and training of international riders.

In the year following the Olympics, jumping, dressage, and three-day eventing-coaches (paid by USET) conduct screening clinics in five or six regions of the country. The most promising riders are invited to attend training sessions at Gladstone or Hamilton Training areas. Two years after the

Olympics, screening, selections trials and training sessions are held in all three disciplines in preparation for the World Championships. The year before the next Olympics, trials, selection and training begin for the new team.

USET raises its own money, except for relatively small USOC ($50,000 over the last quadrennial) and AHSA (approximately $5,000 per year) contributions. USET is a Group C member of the USOC, but is not organizationally related to AHSA. (See USET organization chart.)

U.S. Combined Training Association (USCTA)

USCTA was organized for the development of three-day eventing. At the time, the U.S. was behind the rest of the world in this discipline since only the military had seriously trained competitors. Through AHSA, USCTA fosters and regulates the conduct of Three-Day Event trials in the U.S. and provides guidance, direction and public relations to the Horse Trials (Three-day event) equestrian community. USCTA has its headquarters in South Hamilton and publishes the *U.S. Combined Training Association News* as well as rules and procedures for competitions below the international level (through AHSA). Currently, USCTA has about 5,000 individual members.

U.S. Dressage Federation (USDF)

USDF was organized to promote grass-roots development in dressage. It works very closely with the AHSA Dressage Committee and as a result has acquired greater representation on that committee. A federation of affiliated local dressage organizations, USDF is designed to coordinate, promote, and publicize dressage activities. At present, about 1,000 individual members belong to USDF.

American Dressage Institute (ADI)

ADI is primarily an instructional organization. It sponsors dressage trials, judging forums to train dressage judges, and seminars to provide quality instruction in dressage.

U.S. Pony Clubs, Inc.

Founded in about 1954, this organization is modeled after similar clubs established in England in the 1930s to encourage young people to ride and to instill in them a concern for the proper care of their animals.

Membership is open to individuals under 21 years of age, who receive instruction and may compete in a wide range of equestrian disciplines.

Professional Associations

In the past few years, several organizations have been created to sponsor more horse shows in the U.S. Unlike AHSA shows, many of these have corporate sponsors who receive large amounts of publicity.

Colleges

In 1971-72, the most recent year for which data is available, 50 major colleges offered physical education classes in riding for men and 10 had them for women.

Relationship to International Federation

AHSA is the officially recognized U.S. representative to the Federation Equestre Internationale (FEI). However, in recognition of the unique organizational arrangement in this country for international activities, FEI corresponds directly with *both* AHSA and USET. AHSA, rather than USET, selects representatives to FEI committees, although USET is attempting to get direct representation on FEI.

Currently there are two U.S. representatives on the FEI executive committee. Their transportation to meetings is paid for by AHSA.

RESOURCES

Personnel

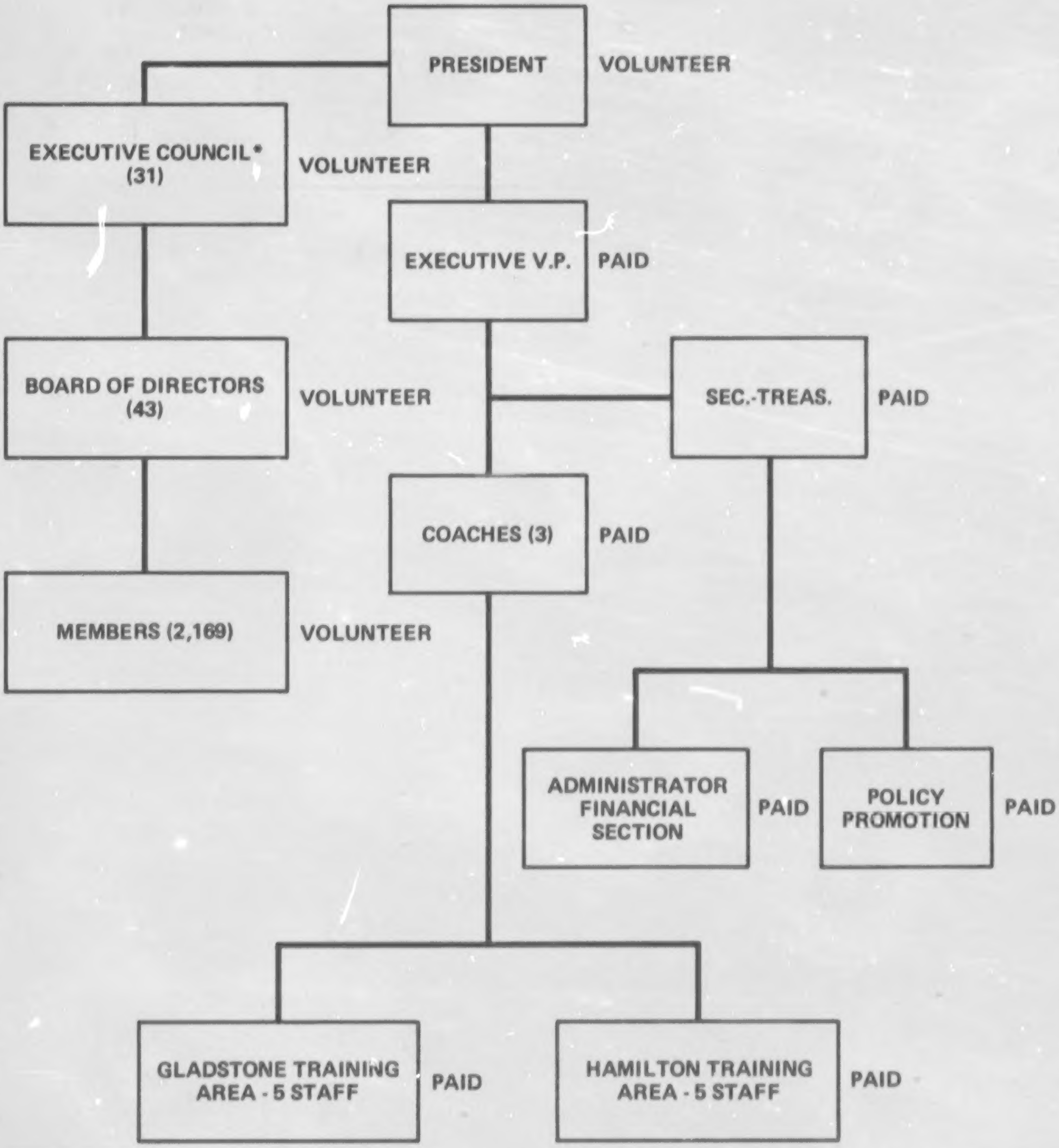
Only five AHSA staff members are paid; the officers and the Board of Directors serve without pay.

USET, on the other hand, has numerous paid administrative staff members: Executive Vice President, Secretary-Treasurer, Administrative Financial Secretary, Director of Policy and Promotion, and 10 staff members at USET training centers. The President of USET, members of the executive committee and the Board of Directors are all volunteers.

USET is one of the few bodies administering Olympic sports in the U.S. with full-time coaches on its payroll: three coaches, one for each of the three equestrian disciplines, are headquartered at the two USET training sites. These coaches were brought to the U.S. from Europe in 1952 (jumping) and 1970 (dressage and three-day event). All other riding instructors in the U.S. are paid through private means, by owners of riding establishments or by those they coach. Presently, few U.S. instructors are trained to coach international-caliber riders, although many former riders turn to coaching after they retire. (During their competitive years, international riders can only instruct at elementary levels if they wish to retain their amateur status.)

The U.S. has some of the most advanced veterinary techniques in the world, due to professional racing interests. Other spin-offs from race

U.S. EQUESTRIAN TEAM STRUCTURE


PRESIDENT
VOLUNTEER
EXECUTIVE COUNCIL* (31)
VOLUNTEER
EXECUTIVE V.P.
PAID
BOARD OF DIRECTORS (43)
VOLUNTEER
SEC.-TREAS.
PAID
COACHES (3)
PAID
MEMBERS (2,169)
VOLUNTEER
ADMINISTRATOR FINANCIAL SECTION
PAID
POLICY PROMOTION
PAID
GLADSTONE TRAINING AREA - 5 STAFF
PAID
HAMILTON TRAINING AREA - 5 STAFF
PAID

*SOME OF THE MEMBERS ARE DIRECTORS OF OTHER NATIONAL EQUESTRIAN ORGANIZATIONS.

tracks help amateur equestrian sports: training techniques, nutrition for horses, horses rejected for use in racing, etc.

Three types of judges are required for the three international equestrian events. Since judging for jumping and endurance competition is highly objective, the necessary training is minimal. Dressage judges, on the other hand, require rigorous training and certification since judging in this event is largely subjective. Dressage judges, of which the U.S. has five who are internationally certified, are paid an average of $100-$200 per day for judging. Some competitors have earned supplemental income this way.

Facilities/Equipment

The training facility for three-day eventing in South Hamilton, was donated to USET in 1970, while dressage and jumping teams train at the rented facility in Gladstone. Rent costs about $8,000 per year. Approximately 18 horses have been donated to USET stables in South Hamilton and Gladstone, but only six of these are of Olympic caliber.

Indoor rings are necessary for year-round dressage and jumping training in the Northeast and Midwest while three-day eventing must be done on an outdoor course. USET's Gladstone facility has both indoor and outdoor facilities.

Expenses for a world-class rider are quite steep. One horse of international caliber purchased in the U.S. costs an average of $25,000, although untrained dressage horses frequently can be purchased for less and then trained by the owner/rider. While dressage riders usually train and compete with just one horse, a jumper or three-day eventer will need to train with at least two, and maybe three, horses because of the demands of training and competition and the high injury rate to the horses. Jumpers need to ride at least two horses every day to keep their timing and sighting finely tuned while three-day event horses usually cannot be entered in more than two competitions per year because of the grueling nature of the competition. An Olympic-caliber horse remains at peak competition level for about three or four years, and rarely for two Olympic Games. Riders who continue competing into a second Olympiad must obtain new horses for training and competition.

Boarding one horse costs approximately $300-$350 per month. Additional costs include veterinary fees (estimated at $1,000 per year), trainer fees, show fees, and travel. Transporting a horse to Europe at straight freight rates, for example, costs about $3,000.

Riding apparel costs about $800-$1,000 per year, while travel expenses vary depending upon the number and location of competitions. One resourceful dressage competitor who lives in California drives her horse in a trailer to the East Coast every summer for competition. Her situation is unique, however. She is a teacher and doesn't work summers, she earns extra money through judging at dressage competitions, she's willing to spend all her uncommitted money on her sport, and she's willing to travel cross-country and to live in modest accomodations.

Financing/Funding

The following figures show USET's documented income and expenditures for 1971-1974 and reported figures for 1975.

Income — USET

1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
$424,265	$497,933	$340,562	$376,416	($493,000)[1]

Expenses — USET

1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
$363,907	$441,807	$246,987	$421,762	($446,000)[1]

[1] reported during interview with USET

A breakdown of these figures for 1974 is presented below:

Major Sources (1974)		
Contributions to USET (general)		$298,749
(Hamilton ring)		21,975
Interest (includes approx. $5,000 annually donated by AHSA out of its end-of-year surplus)		26,863
Competition income		9,417
Income from privately-owned horses boarded at USET stables		5,771
USOC—Games Committee		13,500*
Other		141
		$376,416

Uses (1974)		
Personnel		$115,030
Fund-raising costs		15,482
Stable operations		31,667
Administrative		121,294
(rent—Gladstone)	— $ 7,899.00	
(insurance)	— 10,962.00	
(Hamilton)	— 66,264.00	
(Other)	— 36,169.00	
Domestic competition		4,596
Extraordinary expenses		133,693
(World Championships, etc.)		
Total		$421,762

These figures show annual USET expenses to be quite high although USET appears to have raised sufficient funds to meet expenses and to have a surplus in most years. At the same time, however, USET has not been able to implement some of its longer range plans, such as obtaining more team horses.

The primary source of USET's financial support is rather interesting. USET has survived largely on private donations from wealthy individuals who are USET members (and from some companies). Donations are dwindling as these individuals die. In some instances, contributions (money and horses) are made by parents of an aspiring rider who imagine such gifts will bring leverage for getting their son or daughter on the team. USET resists these pressures but often loses a donor(s).

USET estimates that 500 major donors, contributing an average of $1,000 per year are needed to sustain its programs. Its goal is to have a reserve sufficient to fund USET through one quadrennial. As a first step toward achieving this goal, USET has simplified its regional system into nine zones for purposes of fund raising. A salaried public relations person in the national office is charged with stimulating private contributions. In each zone, there is a fund-raising chairman who is also on the Board of Directors. State Chairmen for fund raising may be appointed within the zones but only half the states have these.

Corporate donations have not been extensively sought, but several feed companies seem interested in making contributions to USET in return for product endorsements. In most other countries, corporations sponsor horse shows in return for advertising time.

DEVELOPMENT

Athletes

Participation in domestic competition has been increasing over the past ten years. Most riders in the three international disciplines are located in the Eastern regions of the U.S. although there is some activity in the Southeast and the Midwest, and a growing base in the Far West. Very few international style riders are developed in the West, however, because of: climatic factors, a substantial drain to Western riding (approximately one-quarter million), and the relatively small number of shows in the West. "Western" riding is different from Eastern in equipment (saddle, bridle, apparel) and style, and competitions include rodeo-type events like barrel racing and calf roping.

Women and men appear to have equal opportunities in the sport. In fact, U.S. teams in international competition often have a greater proportion of women than do teams from other countries. This may be due to cultural and/or social acceptance and encouragement of women as riders in the U.S.

In the development of young talent, a point is reached beyond which it is very expensive to continue. At a certain level of proficiency, riders must acquire or have access to well-trained mounts. A rider either must own his/her own horses and be able to pay for their training, travel, veterinary care and boarding, or find a sponsor who will let him/her ride and display those horses. Dressage riders have an easier time since they need only one good horse and can practice almost anywhere.

By paying partial costs of needy competitors to trials and by making Team horses available to talented riders, USET is trying to ease the financial burden on competitors and thus make it possible for non-wealthy riders to train and compete in international events. Although USET's goal is to have one dozen Games horses in Team ownership, gifts of Olympic-caliber horses for training and competition are becoming less frequent. While the U.S. has more potential Games horses than other leading countries in equestrian (approximately 35,000 horses are bred each year in the U.S.), there are only about ten known sponsors for jumping and perhaps the same number for three-day.

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*USOC allocated monies to the Equestrian Team for the first time in 1972-76 in the amount of $50,000.

As the organization primarily responsible for development of elite international riders, USET conducts regional screening clinics to discover new talent. Its development program includes training sessions at the two USET centers (for juniors also), trials, and selection for international championships, Games and tours.

Coaches

There is no formal training program in the U.S. for riding instructors. However, USET does employ three national coaches, all of foreign origin and training. These men — the Olympic, Pan American, and tour coaches — conduct clinics and training sessions throughout the country at which other riding instructors can learn techniques and approaches.

Retired riders often become coaches. However, this happens only after a rider has given up his/her amateur status if he/she wants to coach at the international level.

Officials

Official training programs are minimal, except in the case of dressage judges since this judging is highly subjective. Dressage judges have training and certification programs operated by ADI, through AHSA. Jumping and three-day event judges are certified by AHSA.

Horses

In order to become world class, horses must receive extensive training from a trainer, the rider, or both. An animal's world class potential generally depends upon its conformation (physical structure), size, movement, and temperament; but actual performance determine's a horse's competitive career. Owners seek the best trainers and riders for their top horses so that they will perform to best advantage in horse shows. If the "matching process" works effectively, top riders either buy or are asked to show the top horses. The rider is then responsible for developing the pair's timing, signals and movement.

Horses are not classified by level of ability as athletes often are. For purposes of international competition, they are judged along with their riders in trials. After being selected for a team, horses must be certified in good health for participation in the competition.

Rules and Standards

All international shows use FEI rules. National AHSA show rules to not differ drastically from international rules.

USET rules of eligibility are the same in language and interpretation as those used by FEI:

- An amateur can be an elementary — but not an international-level — riding instructor for pay.
- An amateur can sell or deal in any level horses but is limited to selling three international horses a year.

Within AHSA, the Amateur Owner Division (AOD) proposed the use of a stricter interpretation of amateur rules for all competition than those established by FEI. USET influenced AHSA to establish two subdivisions within the Amateur Owner Division — one for domestic competition with rules stricter than FEI, and an international subdivision with FEI rules to govern U.S. entries in international competition.

Domestic Competition

National, regional, state and local horse shows are run by AHSA and the professional organizations. These serve as feeders to international competition.

Only jumping (of the three Olympic disciplines) has a real professional show circuit. Nonetheless, most of the real jumping competition in the U.S., in terms of both quantity and quality, is in the amateur circuit.

International Competition

Major international competitions in which the U.S. participates include the Olympics, the World Championships, the Pan American Games, and other international "circuits."

World Championships are held every four years, two years after the Olympic Games. These were first held in 1953 in Prize of Nations jumping. Since then, World Championships for three-day eventing and dressage were added. The 1978 Three-Day Event World Championships will be held in Tennessee. The Pan American Games, in which the U.S. typically does very well, include all three events and are held the year before each Olympics.

Every year, the U.S. competes in various international competitions, including the Fall Circuit of Washington, D.C., New York, and Toronto. (The U.S. is the only country in the world with two international horse shows a year.) U.S. riders also are invited to international shows held on foreign soil.

The team sent to Montreal for the 1976 Olympics included 14 riders, 22 horses, 11 grooms, three coaches, a manager, a blacksmith, and a veterinarian. There were four women riders on the team, and the ages of Olympic team members ranged from 20 to 44. Some of these individuals had been training with USET for several months before the Olympic Trials; others trained at home.

In 1976, for the first time, riders had to meet certain qualifying standards, based on performance in shows during the previous year, to be eligible for the Olympic Trials. Thirty candidates for the three-day event, 18 for dressage, and 12 for jumping met the qualifying standards and entered the Olympic Trials. This represents a small increase in depth at the elite level, but still is not a very strong showing.

Team members for international competition are picked by selection committees in each of the disciplines. For three-day and jumping this is fair since courses are known only on the day of a competition. Given the need for horse and rider to adapt immediately to an unknown course, the experience and soundness of the pair are critical, and can only be judged by a knowledgeable committee after observing rider and animal in a series of competitive situations. For dressage, the committee is advised by a panel of veterinarians who judge the horse's endurance and reaction under pressure.

Riders who try out for the team on their own or a sponsor's horses must sign a release agreeing that if they make the team, the horses may be used by any team member should the rider be unable to compete. Owners of horses loaned to riders trying out for the team must sign a similar agreement. All riders trying out must sign an agreement that they will subject themselves to the discipline necessary to the best interests of the team. Some owners are reluctant to sign their horses over to the team and in the past a few have even withdrawn from the Trials for that reason. The rider's agreement to abide by team discipline apparently does not cause any undue concern.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Generally, equestrian sports in this country are well organized, efficiently and effectively managed, and reasonably well financed. United States teams do well internationally, but this is often at considerable expense to competitors.

Equestrian will never be a sport for the masses. In many other countries, in fact, only the military and the very wealthy ride. The U.S. military is no longer a training ground for competitors and through USET efforts even not-so-wealthy but talented riders have a chance to make an international team. Nevertheless, that chance is still very, very small.

Several things can be done to improve the sport in this country. First, more formal training for riding instructors in the international disciplines would help to overcome the present shortage. Second, a greater voice for active riders in AHSA's Division Committees would help ensure their continuing interest in the sport as well as communicate their ideas to the sometimes imposing heirarchy of that organization. Third, a better way of matching world-class riders and horses is critically needed to open up opportunities for the best U.S. riding talent to reach international competition. Finally, increased financing of USET would permit that body to pay for travel (horses and riders) to more competitions, to maintain a larger stable of team horses, and to do more in the areas of coach development and elite training. If the sport is to continue at its present levels of international participation, more money will be needed to meet increasing expenses and to offset the decreasing supply of donated funds.

FENCING

The sport of fencing evolved from military swordsmanship in sixteenth century Europe when the gun was replacing the sword as a major weapon. By the eighteenth century, fencing was firmly established as a gentleman's sport and academies to teach it had developed throughout Europe. It spread to the United States during the nineteenth century, but has never had a very large following in this country.

Fencing is a subtle and expressive endeavor requiring a great deal of discipline and expert instruction at all stages of learning. The sport was compared to trout fishing by the late Michel Alaux, U. S. Olympic fencing coach, who noted the concentration and mental state of readiness required in both to make the "strike" at the proper moment. Stamina, agility, and years of practice are needed to master what is described as a "fast, sharp, psychic battle."

The modern form of the sport began in countries which permitted dueling. Once the blade was unsheathed the only rule was to kill before suffering mortal harm oneself. Indeed, some of the old notion equating defeat with death lingers and the most effective competitors act as if it still were a very real part of the contest. This intensity often is controlled only by the strict enforcement of etiquette rituals designed in part to minimize the danger of a bout turning into a real duel.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

Fencing is becoming more popular in the United States as more high schools, colleges and universities begin to offer programs in the sport. One characteristic of fencers is that they usually reach their peak performance level at an older age than do athletes in most other sports. Fencers require many years of instruction to develop their skills, and programs are especially needed at the post-graduate level.

Although suitable for people of all heights, weights, ages and sexes, fencing has remained a so-called "minor" sport and the U. S. has never done well in the World Championships or the Olympics. In fact, in Montreal all members of the U. S. team were eliminated in the first several rounds of competition. U. S. team performances in the recent Pan American Games were strong; yet American fencers face serious competition from other Latin and South American countries now emphasizing their fencing programs.

Major problems facing U. S. fencing include:

- —Inadequate financial resources, affecting all areas of the sport, from administration and organization to development and competition;
- —High athlete turnover;
- —Lack of recognition or public understanding of the sport;
- —Shortage of well-qualified coaches;
- —Shortage of available facilities;
- —Limited number of competent officials;
- —Restricted competition for women, who are allowed to compete only in one weapon, the foil. As a result, their participation in all aspects of the sport is more limited than the men's.

Events in International Competition

In international competition men compete in individual foil, individual épée, individual sabre, team foil (4 athletes), team épée (4), and team sabre (4). Women compete in individual foil and team foil (4 competitors).

For the 1976 Olympics the International Olympic Committee (IOC) reduced fencing team size from 20 competitors to 18. The men's team consisted of only 13 athletes which forced two teams (épée and foil) to do without substitutes. The women's team still had five athletes, and there was no reduction in the number of administrative personnel allowed.

History of World Ranking

The U. S. has never had a particularly distinguished record in fencing outside North and South America. No U.S. fencer has won an Olympic Gold Medal since the modern revival in 1896 although one Silver Medal was won by a U.S. athlete in the individual men's foil in 1932. Only a handful of Bronze Medals (four or five) have been won, three of which were in team events.

In the Pan American Games, on the other hand, U.S. performance has been more impressive. Between 1958 and 1971 the U. S. won 27 Gold, 19 Silver, and nine Bronze Medals. In 1975, American fencers brought home nine medals: two Gold, four Silver and three Bronze. However, no American individuals or teams received any medals in the 1976 Olympics.

Serious competition appears likely in the near future from Central and South American fencing teams as their fencing programs begin to receive added emphasis. Currently, the top teams are from Europe including Russia, West Germany, Hungary, Italy, France, Poland, Romania, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The national governing body for fencing in the United States is the Amateur Fencers League of America (AFLA), founded in 1891. It is a non-profit corporation managed by a regionally-elected 114-member Board of Directors. The Board is composed of the AFLA officers (six), the Chairman of each Section (seven), the Chairman of each Division (56), and additional representatives from the divisions according to the number of AFLA members in that geographic region (one director for the first 75 members—the Chairman—and one more for every additional 75 members). The Section and Division representatives are elected annually. An Executive Committee composed of six officers, who serve unlimited two-year terms, and the President of the National Fencing Coaches Association of America (NFCAA), acts for the Board between meetings.

Fifty-six divisions handle local competitions and administration while seven sections handle inter-divisional tournaments. Several persons involved in the sport have indicated that these sections may be an unnecessary layer, both artificial and cumbersome. All activities are handled by volunteers except part-time recording and corresponding secretaries. (See following organization chart.)

Total AFLA membership is 6,541, less than 10% of the estimated number of fencers in the country. Of AFLA members, 4,279 or 66 percent are students (high school or college), 1,708 registered fencers are 23 years of age or older and 553 are non-competitors. This small direct affiliation on the part of fencers with AFLA poses a definite problem for the sport as it reduces the support and promotion of AFLA programs. AFLA is a member of the U. S. Olympic Committee (USOC) and of the Federation Internationale d'Escrime (FIE).

Although the USOC Fencing Committee is being phased out (as are all USOC Games Committees), in the past it consisted of 13 members: nine from AFLA, one from NFCAA, two from the Intercollegiate Fencing Association (IFA), and one from the Armed Forces. In addition to certifying AFLA's Olympic team selection, the USOC's most significant contribution in the past has been the provision of funds for development and national team preparation. AFLA has not yet delineated the structure or exact functions of the new games committee which is to take the place of the old USOC committee.

All committees, commissions, etc., are appointed by the President with the consent of the Board of Directors. Major committees are the Organizing Committee, the Bout Committee and the Jury of Appeal. AFLA administrative functions include correspondence and setting up the Annual Meeting and correspondence primarily among the membership.

Major AFLA programs are:

—Organizing and conducting fencing competitions at the local, sectional and national level;

—Establishing rules of fencing for competitions held in U. S.;

—Selecting and overseeing the training of individuals and teams to represent the U. S. in international competitions;

—Disseminating knowledge and current news of fencing;

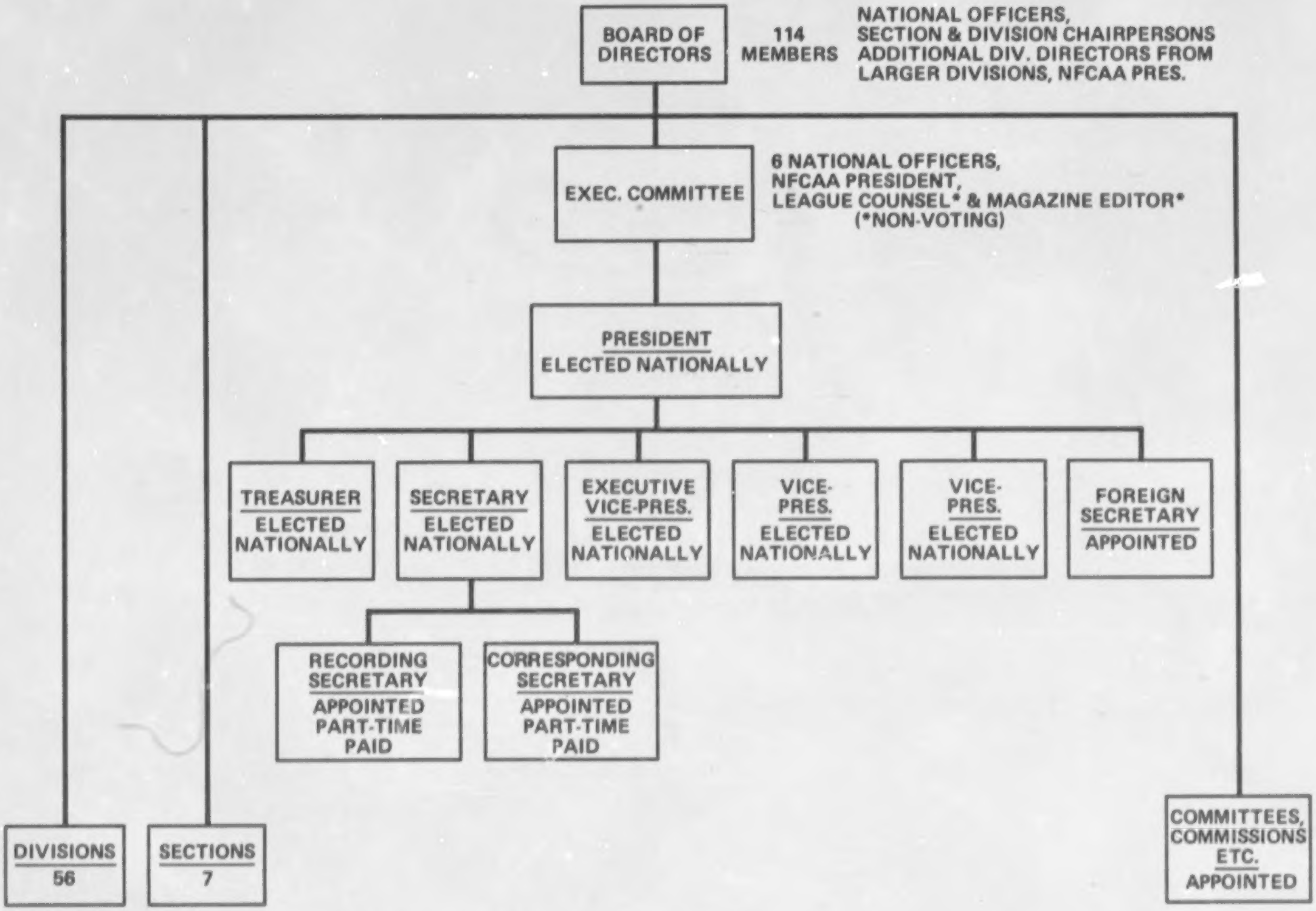
—Working with foreign fencing organizations and other domestic groups with development programs in the sport; and

—Selecting a team to represent the U. S. in World Under-20 Championships.

Other than isolated local programs, AFLA conducts almost no grass roots programs, due primarily to lack of funds. However, Junior Olympic Age Group Development activities are providing under-20 fencers with the same programs as elite athletes,

AMATEUR FENCERS LEAGUE OF AMERICA

ORGANIZATION CHART


BOARD OF DIRECTORS
114 MEMBERS
NATIONAL OFFICERS, SECTION & DIVISION CHAIRPERSONS ADDITIONAL DIV. DIRECTORS FROM LARGER DIVISIONS, NFCAA PRES.
EXEC. COMMITTEE
6 NATIONAL OFFICERS, NFCAA PRESIDENT, LEAGUE COUNSEL* & MAGAZINE EDITOR* (*NON-VOTING)
PRESIDENT
ELECTED NATIONALLY
TREASURER
ELECTED NATIONALLY
SECRETARY
ELECTED NATIONALLY
EXECUTIVE VICE-PRES.
ELECTED NATIONALLY
VICE-PRES.
ELECTED NATIONALLY
VICE-PRES.
ELECTED NATIONALLY
FOREIGN SECRETARY
APPOINTED
RECORDING SECRETARY
APPOINTED PART-TIME PAID
CORRESPONDING SECRETARY
APPOINTED PART-TIME PAID
DIVISIONS
56
SECTIONS
7
COMMITTEES, COMMISSIONS ETC.
APPOINTED

including as much exposure to international competition as possible.

National events are under the supervision of the AFLA President and Board of Directors while sectional events are the responsibility of sectional chairmen and Executive Committees. Divisional events are supervised by Divisional Chairmen and Executive Committees or other appropriate divisional committees.

Typically, fencers remain active in the sport for several years. Since there also are very few of them, many combine administrative duties on the local/regional, national and international levels with their own continued competition. Of six current national AFLA officers, four still actively compete and two qualified for the U. S. international squad during the current Olympiad. Many coaches / administrators in schools and colleges still compete also.

Other Major Organizations

Major groups conducting fencing programs are the various collegiate associations, religious groups, recreational groups, the high schools, the military and coaches associations.

The NCAA has a Fencing Committee composed of six members nominated by the NCAA Committee on Committees and elected at the annual NCAA convention. Its most important function is to conduct the annual National Collegiate Championships. Sub-committees of the Fencing Committee are the Organizing Committee, the Bout Committee (five members appointed by the NCAA Fencing Committee) and the Seeding Committee (five members appointed by the NCAA Fencing Committee).

Approximately 85-90 NCAA member institutions sponsor intercollegiate fencing. The NCAA maintains a close relationship with AFLA. Both use the same rule book and many fencers belong to college teams as well as to AFLA. However, a gap exists between collegiate and post-collegiate programs and many fencers drop out of the sport upon graduation; few opportunities exist for non-school athletes who are not of international caliber.

The National Intercollegiate Women's Fencing Association (NIWFA) sponsors women's intercollegiate programs and competitions for its 50 member institutions. The 50 year old NIWFA has approximately 500-750 participants in its programs, which center on an annual Christmas Invitational Tournament and a National Championship.

The Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) has 71 member schools with intercollegiate fencing programs for women students. AIAW is negotiating with NIWFA to offer joint educational programs and competitions since only four NIWFA members do not also belong to AIAW.

The Intercollegiate Fencing Association (IFA), 13 northeastern universities, provides limited training and competitive opportunities for men.

The National Fencing Coaches Association of America — United States Academy of Arms (NFCAA-USAA) is an organization composed of fencing teachers. USAA members have achieved the professional degree of Fencing Master, either national or international. NFCAA-USAA has 450 members (80% men) and sponsors teaching clinics, fencing clinics, and fencing camps. Four vice presidents located in four different geographical areas are all volunteers. The NFCAA President is an automatic AFLA Board Member. NFCAA includes teachers and coaches at all levels of fencing—recreation, junior and senior high school, club, college and university — to create more cohesion and develop higher quality of instruction.

The U. S. military supports fencing by providing opportunities for the continued development of fencers, particularly in connection with the sport of pentathlon. Currently there are no formal interservice competitions or championships, although the three service academies participate in NCAA competitions.

Fencing is on the CISM[1] calendar both as a separate event and as part of the Modern Pentathlon. However, the military has not sent a fencing team to the CISM games since 1970. Reasons cited by the Interservice Sports Committee (see "Military," Volume II) include: minimal participation, lack of funds to send teams abroad, and higher priorities given to more popular sports such as basketball, boxing, and shooting.

Association members of the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER) are part of the fencing picture in that educators who teach the sport may receive the Fencing Rule Book published by the National Association for Girls and Womens Sports, (NAGWS), or information on injury and safety, or recreational fencing programs. International participation is not generally conceived as a focal point for any AAHPER activities.

Other programs are sparse. High schools — particularly those located in the Northeast, Mid-West and California — provide spotty and usually basic level fencing instruction: fencing programs for boys are offered at 91 schools while 64 schools have programs for girls. One NJCAA member school has a fencing program for women and five have intercollegiate programs for men. The National Association for Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) has no varsity level fencing at all. Religious organizations provide occasional fundamental-level instruction, and summer camps are involved in introductory recreational programs.

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[1] Counsil International du Sport Militaire, which holds international military games each year, was formed in 1948. The U. S. joined in 1951. Of the 26 sports on the CISM calendar, 19 are Olympic sports.

The interrelationship of all these organizations is generally good. There are no jurisdictional conflicts to speak of or major problems within the organizations themselves. The fencing community is sufficiently small that individuals often serve on committees for national, collegiate and international organizations.

Relationship with International Federation

AFLA is a member of Federation Internationale d'Escrime (FIE), the international governing body for amateur fencing. There are no major problems in AFLA's relationship with FIE, but communication is not as effective as it might be due to generally unsophisticated channels of information exchange. (Rather than sending minutes or some other standardized record of FIE meetings and decisions to member NGBs, governing bodies must rely on the individual accounts of their representatives to the international federation.)

RESOURCES

Personnel

AFLA officers and other members receive no salary or allowance for expenses incurred in connection with association business. The association lacks a permanent office or address, and the president is expected to supply space for the association's files and equipment.

Because of this reliance on voluntary contributions by acting officers, AFLA carries on little, if any, independent promotional or development activity other than publication of *American Fencing* magazine.

This state of affairs in fencing is similar to the condition of other minor sports in the United States. Because of the relatively low level of sports participation, the governing body lacks adequate financial and personnel resources to carry out promotional and development programs that might ultimately resolve these problems.

Competent coaches of international caliber number about 25. There are no formal national training academies for coaches, thus many competitors must instruct each other.

Facilities

The basic requirements for fencing facilities are quite easy to satisfy as any flat surface with at least a nine-foot ceiling can be adapted — such as a gymnasium or a room with a hard-surfaced floor (rubber fencing mats can be placed on any surface at least 6½' wide and 40'-60' long). However, many AFLA divisions operate without a permanent site, which makes finding and renting space a constant problem.

Most established fencing clubs are unable to stage major events in their own facilities and must rent hotel ballrooms, exhibition halls, indoor tennis courts and the like for most competitions. Fencers also must transport electrical scoring equipment and metallic strips from location to location.

(Note: The jury for competitive bouts formerly consisted of a president assisted by four judges, who observed the contestants from four fixed positions around the fencing strip. Touches (scores) for all three weapons were determined by visual observation. In recent years, however, electrical foils and épées have been developed and are now widely used for more accurate recording of touches.)

Equipment

The three basic weapons of modern fencing are the foil, the épée and the sabre. The *foil*, the only fencing weapon used by women as well as men, is a flexible, rectangular blade with a blunt point and a small bellshaped guard mounted in front of the handle. Touches may be scored only with the point of the blade on the trunk of the opponent's body.

The *épée* is the same length as the foil, but has a more rigid, triangular blade and a larger bell guard. In épée bouts, touches are also made with the point of the blade, but can be scored on any part of the body, including the head, arms, legs, and feet.

The *sabre*, which is a cutting as well as a thrusting weapon, is a thin, flexible, triangular blade with a blunt point and dulled cutting edge along the entire front as well as on the back two thirds of the blade. A large guard curves around the back of the handle, protecting the hand when the weapon is raised for a slashing blow. Both the point and the cutting edges may be used to score touches, which are counted only when they strike above the opponent's waist.

Foils, épées, and sabres cost from $50 to $80, while masks and other protective garments can run $80-$120, thus making initial costs to a fencer nearly $150-$200. There is also the cost of replacing clothing, tips, blades, etc. which runs $10-$20 per competition.

The electronic system, needed in tournaments to record touches in the foil and épée events, runs $300-$600, while reels and reel cords connecting fencers to the equipment about $100 apiece. Usually this system is paid for by the club or division rather than by an individual.

Finance/Funding

AFLA revenues for the fiscal year ending July 31, 1975, totalled $83,400, about half of which came from membership dues ($42,000). The follwing table shows AFLA income and expenditures in greater detail.

AMATEUR FENCERS LEAGUE OF AMERICA, INC.
STATEMENT OF INCOME AND EXPENSES

	Budget Year Ended July 31, 1975	*Year Ended July 31, 1975*	*Eleven Months Ended July 31, 1974*
REVENUES:			
Dues	$ 42,000	$ 45,955	$ 19,652
Magazine advertising	2,500	5,491	1,842
Magazine subscriptions	400	470	411
Rule book sales	4,000	2,710	6,839
Donations	500	435	189
Films	500	164	236
Promotional merchandise	2,000	1,201	1,686
Earmarked donations and grants:			
Pinchart Memorial Jr. Olympic	5,000	2,763	3,250
Martini & Rossi Tournament	20,000	22,244	18,389
Olympic Development	6,500	38,403	19,457
Total revenues	83,400	119,836	71,951
EXPENSES:			
Divisions and sections share of dues	12,000	11,271	—
Salaries	4,020	3,420	2,860
Payroll taxes	300	286	178
Printing — Magazine	11,664	11,418	10,561
— Other	3,000	999	1,790
List maintenance and mailing	4,680	3,030	4,396
Postage and telephone	4,000	3,800	1,707
Junior Olympic development	800	—	—
Rule book — cost of books sold	—	1,474	5,631
Films	300	—	126
Travel — Officers	2,000	2,140	170
Dues — F.I.E. and U.S.O.C.	700	928	620
Promotional merchandise	2,000	340	725
Directors commissions	200	—	127
Maintenance of national trophies	200	—	—
Insurance	—	250	—
Under-20 World Championships	1,000	619	311
Senior World Championships	1,500	1,500	—
Miscellaneous	500	1,751	(473)
Projects under earmarked donations and grants:			
Pinchart Memorial Jr. Olympic	5,000	2,943	3,500
Martini & Rossi Tournament	20,000	22,244	18,352
Olympic Development	6,500	38,403	19,561
Total expenses	80,364	106,816	70,142
EXCESS OF REVENUES OVER EXPENSES	3,036	13,020	1,809
Unappropriated surplus, beginning of period		3,657	1,848
Unappropriated surplus, end of period		$ 16,677	$ 3,657

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

An important characteristic of U. S. fencing is that less than 10% of the active fencers in the U.S. are members of the national governing body, and many are lost to the sport when they leave college as there are few opportunities for recreational fencing. This is critical to understanding AFLA's emphasis on programs for elite level fencers. It is primarily those with international aspirations who belong to AFLA. With both limited membership and limited finances, the League has been unable to expand its activities significantly.

AFLA estimates that there are approximately 100,000 active fencers in the country, the majority of whose skills are of recreational caliber. International caliber fencers number several hundred. The ratio of men to women (at all skill levels) is 10:1.

Initial interest and continuing participation are dependent in large degree on proximity to areas in which programs exist. Few areas have fencing programs so that many athletes find it difficult to continue to pursue the sport even if once exposed to it.

Athlete Development

AFLA does little in the way of direct support to development programs, primarily for lack of adequate funding. AFLA generally is unable to produce literature, films, equipment kits or other materials to give fencing wider exposure; the few isolated, successful programs have been funded by individual patrons. The limited Junior Olympic program initiated in the early 1970s has had a level of success commensurate with the level of its financial and personnel support; i.e., minimal and individualized, depending on the local commitment to lower level development.

Coaches Development

The absence of athlete development programs is due in part to the lack of good fencing coaches in this country (approximately 25 of international caliber, most of them trained in Europe). Very few instructor training programs are available. In Europe the fencing maestro commands a position of respect; he/she generally has received formal training in order to teach the sport and has the opportunity to use those skills in conjunction with whatever past competitive experience he/she might have. In the U.S., however, incentives for becoming a coach are limited; training programs are virtually nonexistent, the pay is low and job opportunities are few. This lack of national coaching activities also makes the development of standardized teaching methods difficult to establish and put into effect.

Officials Development

The situation concerning officials is similar to, and as serious as, the one involving coaches. Good directors, needed to conduct every match, are scarce and formal training programs to correct this critical shortage do not exist. As with coaches, incentives for becoming a fencing director are extremely limited and financial assistance is practically nonexistent.

The judges and director of a bout are responsible for the conduct of the competition. Great concentration is needed to direct a bout effectively and an official's most important trait—judgment—is very hard to teach. The presence of respected directors to maintain order is critical to the fair treatment of athletes by officials from other countries and to the decorum of the fencers themselves. Without officials who are able to control the bouts, action can get out of hand.

It is estimated by AFLA that there are only about six good U.S. directors, two directors rated as excellent, and only one who is internationally-qualified. A rule change presently being considered by FIE could stimulate training and development of more high-level judges. According to the proposal, FIE would require every team participating in international competition to be accompanied at all times by at least one internationally-certified director. This rule, if adopted, will drastically affect the role of top directors as they will become critical members of elite-level teams according to the rules of international competition. The proposed change will be considered at the next FIE meeting in 1977.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

Collegiate, national and international fencing rules and regulations are basically identical. In the early 1970s the NCAA, AFLA and NFCAA developed an integrated set of rules consistent with FIE regulations. This cooperative effort virtually eliminated the confusion and conflict which had existed when all these organizations used regulations which were by no means uniform or consistent.

Domestic Competition

Active divisions of AFLA generally sponsor local meets, open to all AFLA members, almost every weekend during winter season. In addition, colleges sponsor dual-team and conference meets, as well as the NIWFA and NCAA Fencing Championships. Nationally, AFLA conducts the National Championships, the Junior Olympic Championships and the Under-20 Championships, as well as the Olympic trials every four years.

International Competition

The Martini-Rossi International Tournament is the only regularly scheduled international competition held in the U.S. The World University Games are held every three years, usually in Europe, but many international events are held that U.S. fencers are unable to take advantage of (primarily due to lack of funds): World Championships; other Martini-Rossi trophy events, usually held in Italy, Belgium, or France; the Warsaw Sabre Tournament; Speafico Tournament in Italy; Monal Challenge in France and others.

Team Selection

Since 1972, thanks to USOC funds, AFLA has been able to institute a new team selection system based on objective points and three try-outs per year, including national championships. However, the conduct of try-outs for the top-ranked 24 fencers in each of four weapon categories is expensive and its continued existence is uncertain. This new process met with much approval and has many good qualities, including a rule to the effect that individuals on the selection committee were not eligible for selection themselves. (Another innovation in the area of competition is the current attempt to involve women in épée and sabre instruction and competition.)

Women have traditionally been excluded from these events due to the fear that these weapons constituted too great a physical risk for them. However, many now believe that proper protective equipment eliminates these concerns.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The fencing environment in the U.S. is generally unsuited to the development of championship fencing talent or top-grade coaches. Fencing relies very heavily on expert instruction for the development of championship talent, but there is no training center or masters' school in the U.S. where coaches can be trained to international caliber. Correspondingly, there are limited opportunities for promising fencers to obtain top instruction and to practice and compete regularly with other elite fencers. Instruction and competition are both available overseas, but significant time and financial constraints prevent the adoption of a plan to send U.S. athletes and coaches abroad on a regular basis.

A development program needs to be designed to (1) widen the participation base, (2) provide better training and competition opportunities for U.S. fencing talent, (3) develop a reservoir of qualified/certified fencing coaches, and (4) expose the general public to the sport. It appears that these objectives can best be accomplished by providing several kinds of assistance to groups concerned with fencing and eliciting the support and cooperation of other organized bodies involved in physical training and amateur sport. This strengthening effort, while no easy task, is nevertheless greatly assisted by the fact that virtually no organizational or rule conflicts exist in this sport. Fencing has a great advantage over other groups in this respect.

However, as noted above, it has many disadvantages which need to be addressed. In addition to increased funding efforts which focus on securing corporate sponsorships for athletes or programs and serve to promote the sport in general, other specific forms of assistance might include the following kinds of actions:

—A permanent office and staff consisting of at least a full-time director and secretary needs to be established to support and promote the sport;

—The governing body also might work closely with all educational institutions, recreational groups, and military organizations to encourage fencing development within their respective spheres of influence. This will help to increase membership as well as improve support and coordination of continuing efforts;

—Consideration should likewise be given to the possibility of making schools and clubs, rather than individuals, the basis for membership in AFLA. Consistent with the vertical organization concept, such a restructuring of the NGB would serve to more effectively involve all groups concerned with fencing and to increase and stabilize the membership itself;

—An attempt needs to be made to bridge the gap between undergraduate and post-graduate fencing programs. The National Fencers Coaches Association of America (NFCAA) could work more closely with AFLA to encourage fencing after graduation and to put their experience to use as coaches;

—NFCAA might examine the possibility of establishing a fencing masters academy, perhaps through schools of physical education, to create a reservoir of qualified U.S. coaches for all levels of competitors. In addition, the possibility could be explored of bringing coaches trained at foreign academies to this country;

—Fencing programs (basic and advanced courses) need to be established within existing physical education programs to promote the sport among athletes as well as among newly trained coaches and physical educators; and

—The sport needs to seek means to expand U.S. representation in other international competitions, as well as to host international competitions in this country.

FIELD HOCKEY

When Pakistan lost to West Germany in the men's field hockey finals in the 1972 Olympics, eight persons committed suicide in Karachi. The Pakistani players stomped on their Silver Medals during the award ceremony in Munich and the entire team was banned for life from Olympic competition as a result of their unsportsmanlike conduct.

To put it mildly, men's field hockey does not cause this degree of furor in the United States. The sport suffers almost every problem known to amateur athletics, but passionate displays are not one of them. It has virtually no participation base, no publicity, no funds, and is beset with the difficulties faced by most team sports. Additionally, men's hockey is faced with an almost insurmountable cultural barrier in that it is viewed in this country as a sport only for women.

U. S. women's field hockey, organized and run independently of the men's group, suffers from deficiencies similar to those encountered by the men. Even though women's hockey has a greater participation base from which to draw resources, it still is limited by lack of exposure and absence of funds. In addition, the nature of the cultural barrier faced by women is different since sports for women generally receive less emphasis and support.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

Field hockey, the oldest stick and ball game, is second only to soccer in terms of the number of participants worldwide. Nevertheless, it remains almost completely ignored by male athletes in the United States. There are fewer than 800 competitors in the U. S. men's field hockey program and most are foreign players who learned the game abroad. On the other hand, women's field hockey—not yet an official Olympic sport—is popular in American schools, colleges and clubs, with perhaps 40,000 players of all ages. Since women's hockey will be on the Olympic schedule for the first time in the 1980 Games in Moscow, and because a description of its status is relevant to the men's activities, consideration will be given here to various aspects of the women's version of the sport. The programs in both men's and women's field hockey lack funds for development and operation; and inadequate public exposure generally limits the sport's growth. This absence of exposure particularly affects the men's activities as it perpetuates the image of field hockey as a girl's game.

Both programs also share other problems:

1) Facilities. Finding surfaces smooth enough to play is crucial to this ball and stick game; skills are rendered useless if the pitch is too rough to provide the ball with a reasonably true roll. In any case, football or soccer-type fields (no matter what the condition of the surface) are usually taken up by the more popular field sports;

2) Equipment, particularly the sticks and ball. Essentially, equipment requirements are the same for men and women, but they are expensive because all must be imported;

3) Organization and development. Deficiencies in these areas are closely connected to the critical lack of funds;

4) Lack of effective education programs—clinics, workshops and exhibitions;

5) Infrequent national and international competitive opportunities at all levels; and

6) Team selection. A problem in all team sports is that of selecting a national team and making it possible for the athletes to train together long enough before international competition.

Despite differences in participation base, both men's and women's field hockey have similar needs. Recent Federation Internationale de Hockey (FIH) developments regarding uniting men's and women's hockey at the international level could have important ramifications in the U. S. programs, not so much in terms of combining men's and women's programs as in coordinating resources for the benefit of both groups.

Events in International Competition

The game of field hockey is played with teams of eleven players: five forwards, three halfbacks, two fullbacks, and a goal keeper. The object of this contest is to place the ball in the opponent's goal. Each successful attempt is worth one point. Sticks are of wood with a solid head attached to a laminated handle. The left side of the head is flat and only that surface may be used to hit the ball. Stick handling ability in field hockey is similar to that required in ice hockey and lacrosse, but more difficult to master. Field hockey differs from the latter sports, however, in that body contact is minimized. The game is played in two 35-minute halves with no time out or substitutions permitted except for injury. These rules make it necessary for players to have a combination of running speed and endurance plus a high degree of skill at stick work to be effective.

Twelve men's teams are selected to participate in the round robin-style Olympic tournament. The first four teams from the last Olympic Games are automatically chosen, as is the host country. The remaining teams are chosen through a series of Continental Games (African, Asian, Pan American). Except for Olympic and Pan American Games, international competition is very infrequent for U. S. teams and is generally limited to occasional matches with teams from Canada and the Caribbean. No world championships are held. The last time the U. S. men's team went to Europe to compete was in 1963 and it returned home without winning a single game.

History of World Ranking

Field hockey first entered the Olympics in 1908, was dropped, appeared again in 1920, and was placed permanently on the schedule in 1928. In the U. S., field hockey first was played by women beginning about 1900 and by men in 1928. The U. S. entered teams in the 1932, 1936 and 1956 Olympics and did not win any games (but did manage to tie the Afghanistan team in one contest during the 1956 games.) In 1952 the American team was chosen by FIH at the last minute to compete in the Helsinki Olympic Games but was unable to collect enough money to travel.

Since 1956 the U. S. has not had a team qualify for the Olympic Games and in the last decade or so the best U. S. showing was a third place in the 1967 Pan American Games. The best teams in the world at present are from Australia, New Zealand, Germany, Pakistan, India, Great Britain and Holland.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

In 1932 six clubs in the New York area formed the Field Hockey Association of America (FHAA) in order to send a team to the 1932 Olympics in Los Angeles. FHAA is recognized as the U. S. franchise holder by FIH. It is a Group A member of the U. S. Olympic Committee (USOC) and is incorporated as a not-for-profit tax-exempt organization.

A restructuring proposal was presented at the 1976 annual meeting. The proposal suggests that particular emphasis be given to regional representation on the Executive Committee. No formal vote was taken but it will be given further consideration during 1977 and placed on the annual meeting agenda.

Regional representation has been slowly developing within the FHAA for several years as support grows for the concept that district affiliates should take care of their own affairs on their own level. In the past, many clubs looked to the national governing body for assistance in finding fields to play on, establishing schedules, securing umpires, and so on. This was largely because the majority of activity in men's hockey was centered in the narrow eastern corridor between Washington, D. C., and the New York-Philadelphia area. However, the sport's expansion to the West Coast in recent years has emphasized the need to make district clubs responsible for the daily management of their own activities and to provide each region with a proportionate share in the conduct of national and international hockey programs.

As of 1976, FHAA has approximately 20 clubs in its membership. Dues are supposed to be $100 per club with $125 for each extra team, but collecting dues is one of FHAA's toughest problems as the money comes for the most part directly from the players' own pockets. With funds so short, the national office is unable to provide members with many benefits or services, in turn making these members even less likely to pay dues.

At present, FHAA has a five-man Executive Committee, elected every other year, the officers of which must be adult U. S. citizens and FHAA members. Athletes are not directly represented; each club in good standing has two votes to be utilized by the clubs' representative at the Annual Meeting. The President has general supervisory authority over all activities. Other officers include the Vice President, the Secretary, the Registrar, and the Treasurer. The Executive Committee is responsible for appointing all committees and sub-committees, the primary ones being Rules and Scheduling. It also organizes and sanctions all U. S. participation in men's international field hockey tournaments and hears all complaints regarding FHAA and rules of competition. When additional support for any activities (particularly conducting various tournaments-competitions) is needed, volunteers are called for from the membership. The officers perform all necessary FHAA duties, such as the general supervision of affairs, internal operation of the association, all communication both internal and external, and control of funds.

Major FHAA programs include spring and fall weekend competitions among the 15 club teams in the Washington/New York/Philadelphia area and year-round activities in the Far West, particularly in California. A national coach was hired in 1974 to work with top teams and to conduct clinics at various schools and colleges around the country. This program has been terminated primarily for lack of funds; but efforts to broaden the sport's base and exposure are currently receiving serious consideration.

FHAA also selects a national team to represent the U. S. internationally. Theoretically, national team selection procedures calls for the FHAA selection committee to observe all teams during the season and choose those athletes it determines to be the best players. Although representation from both East and West Coasts is deliberately sought, the effort is not always successful. Selection Committee members have been primarily from the East Coast, and the distance and expense involved in travelling to the West Coast often precludes a balanced slate from which to choose athletes.

Other Major Organizations

The Boy Scouts of America conducts a very limited men's field hockey program consisting of brief basic instruction and annual tournament included in the Explorer Olympics. Although the Boy Scouts give the sport some exposure, this program does not provide any substantial development.

High schools in Massachusetts have a very small introductory program with a few hundred boys participating, but no other significant programs exist; the Armed Forces have discontinued their short-lived, introductory program and no colleges have varsity field hockey teams for men. (However, the current trend toward coeducation in formerly one-sex colleges may have a positive effect on the growth of both women's and men's field hockey.) The only other group involved in men's field hockey is the USOC's Field Hockey Games Committee which provided development funds to the FHAA. This group is now subsumed under FHAA itself and will handle national team development.

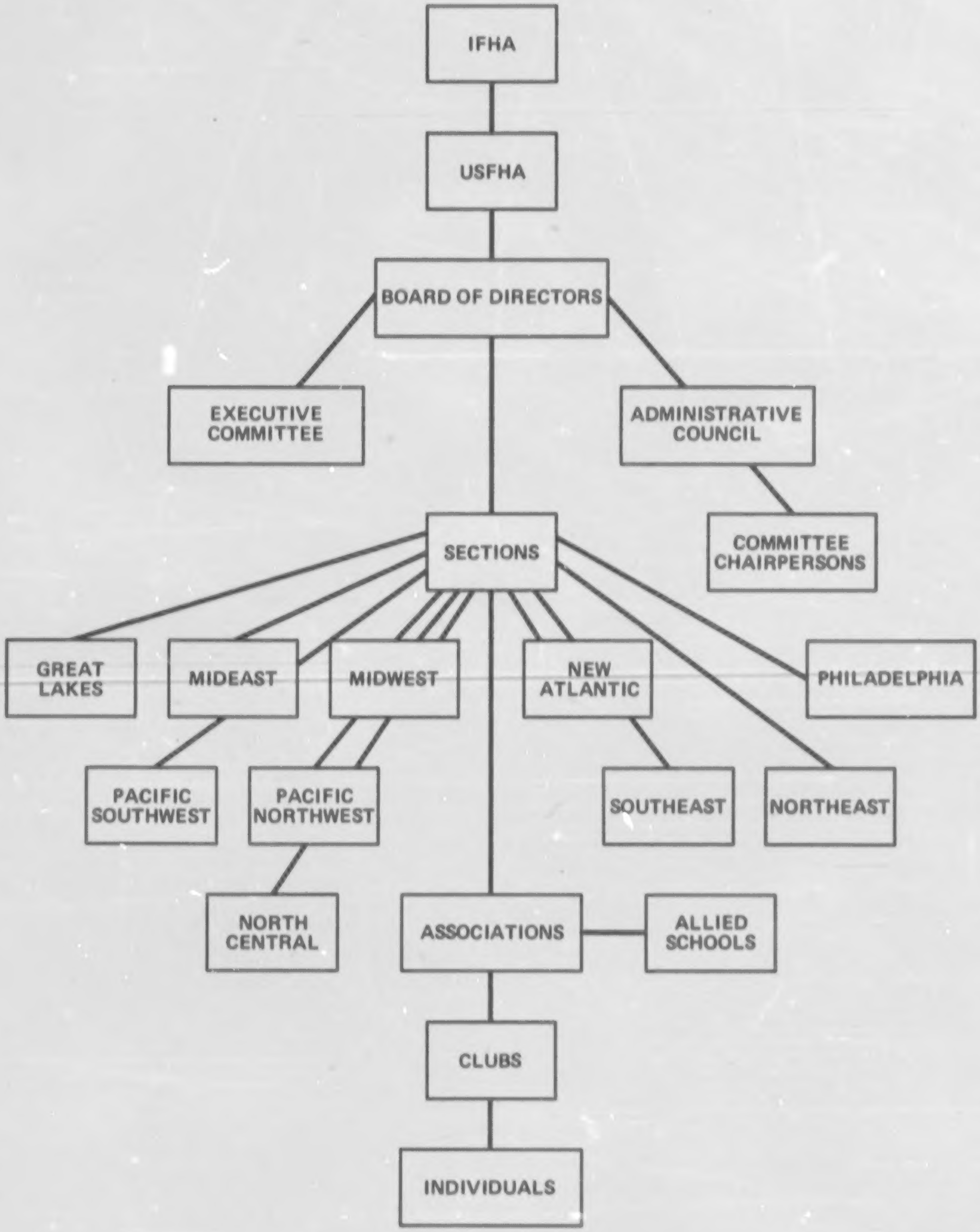
The picture in women's field hockey, however, is somewhat different. The U. S. Field Hockey Association (USFHA) is the national governing body for women's field hockey. Clubs are the basic unit of organization in the USFHA, but schools and colleges also may affiliate with the organization. This may change at the Annual Meeting in spring 1977, however, and USFHA may require individual memberships. Approximately 9,000 players from 300 universities, colleges, junior colleges, and more than 12,000 women from 400 clubs are affiliated with USFHA. It is estimated that more than 40,000 girls and women play field hockey in this country.

USFHA was formed in 1922 and is governed by a Board of Directors that meets twice yearly. The Board consists of the officers (President, Administrative Vice President, three Vice Presidents, Secretary and Treasurer; all are elected to three-year terms), Immediate Past President, Sectional Association Chairmen and Local Association Presidents. Although no provisions are made for athletes' representatives in USFHA organization, athletes, as members of member clubs, are eligible to hold office.

USFHA conducts local, regional, and national tournaments as well as coaching clinics, umpire clinics and development camps. The association also selects national and reserve teams for international competition in conjunction with the International Federation of Women's Hockey Associations (IFWHA). All USFHA staff members are volunteers with the exception of the part-time Executive Secretary. The USFHA team currently ranks 9th or 10th in the world. Most feel that this status is due not to a lack of ability on the part of the athletes but to a lack of adequate training opportunities. Thus, prepa-

UNITED STATES FIELD HOCKEY ASSOCIATION, INC.

ORGANIZATION CHART


IFHA
USFHA
BOARD OF DIRECTORS
EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
ADMINISTRATIVE COUNCIL
SECTIONS
COMMITTEE CHAIRPERSONS
GREAT LAKES
MIDEAST
MIDWEST
NEW ATLANTIC
PHILADELPHIA
PACIFIC SOUTHWEST
PACIFIC NORTHWEST
SOUTHEAST
NORTHEAST
NORTH CENTRAL
ASSOCIATIONS
ALLIED SCHOOLS
CLUBS
INDIVIDUALS

rations are underway to get a team ready for the 1980 games. The following chart shows USFHA organization.

Another major organization conducting programs in women's field hockey is the five-year-old Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW). In addition to regional and national collegiate championships, AIAW also provides clinics to further athlete, coach, referee development. AIAW works with USFHA in many areas including the co-sponsorship of the national championships. A member of an AIAW team also may participate as a member of a USFHA club team. This relationship sets up an interesting and unprecedented arrangement between the college community and the club system which can be beneficial to both players and the sport. Players can get as much or as little training and competition as they need for their own development, while the sport benefits from upgraded competition if talented athletes can play on club teams when collegiate scheduling allows it. In the NCAA, on the other hand, rules generally prohibit a college athlete from simultaneous participation on a college and a club team.

The National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA) also conducts programs in field hockey for women. It serves a portion of the junior/community college (J/CC) community, as does the J/CC division of AIAW. Like AIAW, NJCAA provides coaching and athlete development clinics for its members. Because the two college associations provide similar opportunities, some conflict and overlapping in activities does exist. Since a junior or community college may belong to NJCAA for competition in both its men's and women's programs, many J/CC colleges choose to pay dues to just one group, usually NJCAA.

Finally, many junior and senior high schools provide instruction and competition in field hockey for girls as a regular part of their athletic programs. In 1974-75 approximately 1,897 schools offered interscholastic hockey competition.

Implicit in the above discussion is a factor central to the complete understanding of field hockey in this country: there is virtually no coordination between men's and women's field hockey activities in development of athletes, coaches, umpires; use of facilities; competition; or mutual promotion. This is primarily due to existing program differences and a general absence of communication rather than to any conflicts or disputes over control of the sport. Neither group desires to take over the programs of the other.

Relationship with International Federation

International relationships appear to be generally satisfactory. FHAA feels that it has adequate representation in the decision-making processes of the Federation Internationale de Hockey (FIH). This may be due, in part, to the fact that the FHAA President is also a Vice President of FIH and a member of the Supreme Council.

The Supreme Council is a new FIH concept: an umbrella-type structure made up of four FIH members and four members from the International Federation for Women's Hockey Associations (IFWHA) in an effort to bring the men's and women's organizations together, at least on the international level. Two meetings of the Council (in early December 1975 and late May 1976) resulted in a landmark policy decision to the effect that any organization recognized by either international federation as a national governing body (NGB) for field hockey (men's group, women's group, or association governing both) is now recognized by the new FIH Supreme Council as the official franchise holder for field hockey in that country. This action awaits response from the international Olympic sports community as it allows two NGBs to exist in one sport in one country which is technically a violation of IOC Rule 24.[1] Such a dual NGB arrangement is not totally without precedent, however, as the international skating federation in several instances recognizes two governing bodies in a single country to conduct programs in ice skating—one for figure skating and one for speed skating. What is unique about the situation in field hockey is that the respective NGBs do not conduct programs for different aspects of the sport, but rather that one organization exists exclusively for men and one just for women. With regard to the FIH Supreme Council plan, the response of the USOC is unknown at the present time. Women's field hockey has never been an Olympic sport, so the NGB for women's hockey (USFHA) has never requested individual membership in the USOC. Recently, USFHA submitted an application for Group C status. However, since all other internationally-recognized NGBs for Olympic sports are represented in Group A, USFHA may change its request to an application for Group A membership.

RESOURCES

Personnel

FHAA has no paid administrators. Five elected members constitute the officers and staff of the national governing body.

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[1] An NOC must not recognize more than one national federation in each Olympic sport.

No formal training programs are conducted by the FHAA to develop coaches in the U. S. The association did hire a national coach two years ago to promote the sport and conduct clinics throughout the country in addition to coaching the top men's players. However, this arrangement is being re-evaluated as it was a relatively expensive program and did not yield the expected results. So much work is required in the areas of both national team development and promotion/exposure of the sport that it is an extensive task for one person to do alone on limited funds. Added to the lack of administrators and coaches, there is also a dearth of officials. The U. S. has one internationally-certified men's official but FHAA has no formal programs to train or certify others.

Facilities/Equipment

Requirements for training facilities are relatively simple. Outdoors, players need a field similar to soccer or football practice fields (not necessarily the regulation 100 yards long and 50 to 55 yards wide). Indoors, a gymnasium can be used for skills practice or to play a slightly altered version of the outdoor game. (In fact, in recent years gymnasium hockey has become fairly popular and is being promoted by the manufacturers of the plastic sticks and balls used to play this "new" game). However, for most effective training in outdoor hockey, athletes need access to weight equipment, running areas to build speed and stamina, and open areas to develop and maintain competitive stick and ball skills.

Competitive facilities in men's hockey are difficult to find, especially in the Eastern part of the country. The situation is not quite as critical in California where more outdoor fields are available, but there still are not nearly enough. Regulation areas are 100 yards by 50 to 55 yards. The playing surface must be very smooth. Hard ground with closely cut grass is best, but artificial surfaces are also satisfactory. Acceptable fields generally are not available, as they are used for more popular team sports with similar needs. When space is free for use by a hockey team, it is often too rough for proper play. Special knowledge is required to plant and maintain a top quality hockey pitch.

Field hockey equipment includes a hockey stick for each player, two sets of goalie pads and goalie shoes, two goals, and a hockey ball. Hockey shoes and shin pads are needed at more advanced competitive levels. The best equipment comes from India, Pakistan, Great Britain, and Germany, making cost and availability significant problems. The approximate cost of shoes and a stick is from $20-$50 each; shin pads are $4-$8; a ball is $2-$5; and goalie pads can cost anywhere from $30 to over $100. Goals are expensive, but are easy to build and are often homemade according to specifications and instructions included in every FIH rule book.

Finances/Funding

FHAA derives most of its income from membership dues—which are not dependable or constant —and on USOC development monies. USOC development grants for the years 1973 through 1976 were as follows: 1973—$3,500; 1974—$7,200; 1975—$3,250; and 1976—$3,250. USOC team preparation grants for 1975-76 were $6,000 for 1975 and none for 1976, as the team did not qualify for the Olympic Games. The trials and extended team training grants from the USOC in 1975 were $2,400 and in 1976 were again not available since the team did not qualify.

FHAA expenditures for the last quadrennial were mainly for the national coach program and travel expenses associated with team preparation for the 1975 Pan American Games. Despite USOC funds, the athletes, coaches, and officials had to bear much of the cost of travel, room and board. Only $965 was raised last year from donations which is fairly typical of the FHAA financial picture. A detailed financial statement from FHAA was not available.

DEVELOPMENT

Most athletes in FHAA programs learn to play hockey overseas, although some are native born and come to field hockey after competing in soccer, lacrosse, or football. FHAA has given minimal attention to developing young hockey players primarily because of the severe lack of resources needed for these programs. Although in recent years the average age of FHAA club players has been reduced from 35 years to just under 30. Some individual hockey players have attempted to introduce the sport locally. These efforts, to date, have only produced one or two teams in an area and competition opportunities remain extremely limited.

No formal coaching development program exists for training men's hockey instructors. Most are coaches by virtue of the fact that they once played the game themselves. Many who act as coaches are still competing on a team, and thus their availability is restricted. No formal officials' development programs exist for men's hockey referees, either. Most hockey officials are former players, many of whom are still competing. The uniformity of rule interpretation and application is not safeguarded and the number of officials available for local, national, and international competition is often limited and unpredictable.

COMPETITION

Rules and standards are the same for national and international field hockey competition.

Domestic events under FHAA auspices consist primarily of weekend competition between club teams in the Washington, D. C., New York and Philadelphia areas and between teams located on the West Coast.

Responsibilities of FHAA on the international level center on selecting a team for competition. Every year the selection committee observes all teams during the season and chooses what it determines to be the best players. It is the committee's policy to try to select a team with representatives from both coasts, but this is not always possible due to a lack of time, money, and an uneven distribution of talent. Opportunities for male U. S. hockey players to gain international experience is extremely limited, even if they are members of the national team. Infrequently, a foreign team will consent to an American tour; however, this is a rare occurrence because of the expense involved and the lack of top level competition and facilities in this country.

No world championships are held for men in field hockey but frequent invitational competitions do occur among most countries' various teams. For lack of funds U. S. teams do not attend many of these tournaments, the exception being an occasional competition with a Canadian or Latin/South American team. Thus, the only regularly scheduled events for our teams are the Pan American Games and the Olympic Games every four years. This contrasts greatly with the situation in Europe and Asia, where exchanges among countries, as well as extensive competition within each country, are the norm.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A description of the status of men's field hockey is simply an enumeration of the sport's problems:

- Lack of finances,
- Lack of public awareness of the sport (or the widely-held misconception that field hockey is a woman's sport),
- Lack of participation base or programs which can be expected to result in significant local development,
- Lack of playing surfaces, and
- Lack of competition, both national and international.

The women's program has similar problems except that the participation base is significantly larger, and women do not have to fight the stigma that men do in this country of playing a so-called women's sport.

Although the men's and women's programs seem to want to remain autonomous, improved coordination with respect to their activities, wherever possible, is required, particularly in terms of sharing facilities, teaching and training materials, and perhaps coach and referee personnel as well. Tours and exhibitions might similarly be improved through such coordination. Joint efforts could be mutually beneficial: women's field hockey has programs in the high schools and colleges and conducts a number of athlete, coach and official developmental efforts, while the men's group has access to certain teaching materials, particularly the audiovisual variety. The men also have the status of Olympic membership and have participated for more than 40 years. Both groups would be strengthened if FHAA and USFHA shared the limited resources at hand in terms of facilities, coaches and officials, educational programs, administrative services, fund raising and promotion plans, and some competition/recreational opportunities. However, the problem of correcting the image of field hockey as a women's sport supports the preservation of the existing autonomy of the men's group, at least for the present. Likewise, the women desire to preserve their separately administered programs in this sport.

Regional training centers to provide opportunities for training and competition as a team are also indicated. Through such facilities the potential for sorely needed exposure to the public would also be enhanced. Of critical importance to field hockey is funding sufficient to expand the participation base. If the country is to become truly competitive in the sport on an international scale, a massive effort, particularly in the men's sport, must be made to develop field hockey at the grass-roots level.

FIGURE SKATING

When 19-year-old Dorothy Hamill finished her final blur spin and glided to a stop amidst tumultuous applause from the audience, she joined the ranks of six other American skaters who have won the Olympic Gold Medal since 1948. Capping her Olympic win in Innsbruck with the World Championship title, Hamill almost overnight became one of the highest paid women athletes in the history of sport. Her contracts to be the headline attraction in ice shows, to make several TV sports specials, and to endorse an endless array of products, will bring her a reported $1.5 million in the first year or two.

Yet, for every Dorothy Hamill who spins her way to competitive and financial success, thousands of young hopefuls will never have the same opportunity. Figure skating is one of the most expensive of all sports. Hamill's chance at fame and stardom cost between $15,000 and $20,000 in the last year of training alone. Skating lessons, ice time, custom-made boots and equipment, special costumes, instruction in choreography and ballet, transportation costs — all place the sport out of the reach of many middle-class families and simply shut the door to lower income families. Skaters need sponsors to help pay the bills, as was the case with Hamill and several of her winning predecessors, or they can never discover the limits of their talent.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

Figure skating is one of two "developed" winter sports in the U.S. (the other is alpine skiing). The sport is not without problems (perhaps the greatest is the high cost of participating), but in terms of the caliber of coaching available, interest in the sport, the year-round ice facilities, there is more activity in Southern California alone than in the whole of Europe. This helps to account for continued U.S. success in the sport since the second World War.

However, the sport has its weaknesses. The U.S. does not do as well in the pairs and ice dancing events as it does in singles. The couple events generally require older, more mature skaters seasoned in international competition. The Russians and, to a lesser extent, the East Germans have dominated these two events for the last decade; state support enables their athletes to continue competing well into their 30s. U.S. skaters, on the other hand, like Americans in so many other Olympic sports, find it difficult for economic reasons to continue in amateur competition after their college years. The lure of professional ice extravaganzas and the relatively high fees earned by skating coaches persuade many young skaters to leave the amateur ranks before they have reached their competitive peak.

Major problems in the sport of figure skating can be summarized:

- The high cost of participating;
- The siphoning off of amateur skaters into the professional ranks, either to ice shows or as coaches, where they can earn a good income;
- Relatively few skaters who train in pairs or competitive ice dancing;
- An inadequate system for the recruitment and upgrading of judges;
- Relative scarcity of ice time for competitive development programs (most ice rinks allocate the prime hours to public skating and ice hockey, greater revenue producers); and

- A national governing body that is limited by its constitution to amateur members, thereby excluding the collective expertise of skating coaches.

On the other hand, the sport can draw on many strengths. The United States Figure Skating Association (USFSA) is one of the few national sports governing bodies that has a full-time office with a large staff (13 members); it has a computerized system for recording membership lists, test results, and other pertinent data, as well as for computing quick results at major competitions; it has a highly successful (by amateur sports standards) fund-raising effort and more than $650,000 in invested funds (as of March 1976); it has some 354 clubs and 31,289 registered skaters, evidence of burgeoning interest. Skating also has some 1,400 year-round ice rinks throughout the country to facilitate training and, as a favorite spectator sport, it benefits from good media exposure and from several touring professional shows.

Events in International Competition

In world and Olympic competition, there are four events in figure skating: men's singles, women's singles, pairs, and ice dancing. Ice dancing was added to the world championships in 1952, and to the Olympic calendar in 1976. The other three events go back to the earliest world competitions at the turn of the century. Even though the first official Winter Olympic Games were not held until 1924, figure skating was included as one of the official events in the Summer Games of 1908 and 1920.

Maximum team size for either world or Olympic competition is 18 members, nine men and nine women. The actual number depends upon a country's placements in each event in the previous World Championships. Each country is allowed one entry. Two entries are permitted if a country has a competitor who placed in the top 10 the previous year; three, if a skater, pair, or dance team placed in the top five and is returning to compete.

A world championship with all four events is held every year. A junior world championship for skaters 16 years of age and under in singles — 19 and under in pairs and dance — was held for the first time in 1976, and is expected to become an annual meet.

History of World Ranking

Figure skating, with 26 medals since 1920, is the second most successful U.S. sport in the Winter Games, exceeded only by speed skating with 30. However, on a percentage basis, figure skating is the "winningest" sport since it has only four events to speed skating's nine.

The U.S. has won the World Championship title 12 times in the women's event and 14 times in the men's since 1948, but has only won the pairs once and has not won the dance competition since it became an official world event.

In 1976, the U.S. won the Gold Medal in the women's competition in the Olympics and World Championships, and the Bronze Medal in the dance event at the Olympics and the world meet. U.S. skaters also placed fifth in the women's, men's and pairs events at the World Championships.

U.S. junior skaters won the men's and women's events in the first International Skating Union (ISU) Junior Championships, and placed second in the pairs. No dance entries were sent.

Since the second World War, the U.S. has been a major power in the sport. Canada and the Soviet Union (since 1964), followed by East and West Germany, are the other strong team contenders.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The U.S. Figure Skating Association (USFSA) was founded in 1921 by representatives of several eastern skating clubs, but it was not until 1937 that ISU (which also has jurisdiction over speed skating) recognized USFSA as the independent governing body for figure skating. Until then, the Amateur Skating Union of the United States (ASU) was the governing body for figure, speed, and roller skating. Today, ASU governs only pack-style speed skating, a non-Olympic sport.

USFSA is composed of member clubs, individual members and a few affiliated schools and colleges. It is run by an Executive Committee which meets twice a year and is composed of six officers, chairmen of the 10 standing committees, and 18 representatives from the three sections of the country. Sectional representatives are elected at the annual USFSA convention; the officers are elected annually but usually are re-elected for three terms. The president appoints the chairman of each standing committee and of some 11 special committees that conduct the major business of the organization. All action taken by the Executive Committee must be approved by the delegate assembly at the annual convention. Conspicuous by their absence, recent or current athletes are not represented in USFSA at all.

Representatives from 354 skating clubs throughout the country are nominated, selected, and serve on the various committees. Efforts are made to balance committee membership geographically, with equal numbers from the East, Midwest, and Pacific Coast.

Figure skating is the only Olympic sport in the U.S. that specifically excludes coaches from membership in the governing body and therefore from positions on the technical committees and as officers of the association. In all other sports coaches are encouraged to take an active role in the national governing body. USFSA makes a hard distinction between amateurs and professionals. The rulebook defines professionals as persons who have "received direct or indirect financial benefit from performance, teaching or officiating in skating . . . " and states specifically that only amateurs "are eligible to participate in all USFSA activities and to hold office in the USFSA and Member Clubs." This provision has kept out coaches as well as professional ice show skaters. It is worth noting that the ISU constitution does not require this exclusion of coaches, only that competitors and meet officials be amateurs.

Coaches are involved day-to-day in the sport, are a prime force for technique development, and are most aware of the impact that rule changes will have on skaters. In many instances their expertise and commitment to figure skating surpass that of the part-time volunteer judges and officials who currently are more influential in the sport governing body. USFSA would seem to be losing a valuable resource by its arbitrary exclusion of coaches. Other national skating associations, such as the one in Canada, traditionally have been closed to coaches but are beginning to work more closely with the professional guilds. USFSA does have coaches on the electors committee for the Figure Skating Hall of Fame.

On the business side, an executive director and an office staff of 12 in Boston run USFSA affairs, including the publication of the official sport magazine, "Skating." Computer-stored records are kept of each skating test attempted or passed, all competition results, and appointments and evaluation of judges.

Under U.S. Olympic Committee changes, USFSA will assume the functions of the Olympic Figure Skating Committee. Although its composition has not yet been determined, USFSA's volunteer group will be responsible for Olympic team selection and participation.

As of March 1976, USFSA had 31,289 registered figure skaters, a drop from the 1975 peak of 33,656, but it is too early to tell whether this decline signals a trend. All skaters wishing to take USFSA tests or to skate in USFSA sanctioned carnivals and competitions must be members of clubs in good standing or be individual members of the association.

USFSA sponsors a number of major programs. First, in accordance with ISU regulations, the association sponsors a series of figure, pair and dance tests to determine proficiency and to qualify a skater for competition. The nine tests contain 70 figures, based on the elementary figure 8. As the tests (school figures) become more complicated, a skater is required to show his or her proficiency in free skating as well, eventually performing fully composed free skating programs set to music.

The four pair tests are designed to test the unison, rhythm, musicality, and jumping, lifting and spinning ability of the pair. Likewise, eight dance tests include a series of 17 set-pattern dances as well as two free dances, which challenge the skaters' ability to put various moves into an arrangement and choreography of their own choosing.

Skaters must receive a passing score from two of the three judges on the panel. A failed test may be reskated after 27 days. Scores are based on a scale of 6.0 for a "perfect and faultless" performance.

In addition, USFSA: hosts a series of regional and sectional competitions through its member clubs leading to the U.S. Championships each year; establishes training programs for judges and officials, and requires periodic review of their qualifications; selects, uniforms and sends teams to international competitions; sanctions carnivals and amateur exhibitions that serve as the talent showcase for figure skaters; publishes a monthly magazine; raises funds through the USFSA Memorial Fund, the sale of TV rights, and other programs; carries on the business of the association and its member clubs, acting as a clearing house for information and services; and maintains and promotes an historical museum and hall of fame for skating.

Figure skating is one of several sports with a separate educational foundation which qualifies for tax-exempt status. The USFSA Memorial Fund, established as a tribute to the 1961 U.S. Skating Team killed in a plane crash, has been fairly successful in raising funds to assist skaters. In the 1975-76 competitive season, the Memorial Fund, a charitable and educational trust with tax-exempt status, disbursed more than $130,000 to defray the training costs of top national skaters.

Generally, the goals of the association are to:

- Increase the membership of the association and promote interest and participation in the sport at both recreational and competitive levels;
- Define and maintain uniform skating standards and rules for tests and competitions;
- Assist U.S. skaters in training to maintain and improve the country's position in international competition;
- Raise more funds to provide greater support to talented skaters and to skating programs in general; and

- Promote and improve the quality of judging and officiating at tests and competitions.

Other Major Organizations

The Professional Skaters Guild of America (PSGA) and the Ice Skating Institute of America (ISIA) are the two other figure skating organizations in the United States.

PSGA, an organization of professional coaches and show skaters, has some 600 members. Elected officers and a 10-member board of governors conduct business in the intervals between annual conventions.

PSGA is involved in programs to improve its members' technical knowledge and quality of teaching, to certify coaches and to advance the role of its members in governing the sport. PSGA president serves as a liaison with USFSA and ISIA. Although USFSA rules currently prohibit professionals from membership in the association—and therefore from any role in the decision-making process—PSGA recently has petitioned for its members to be included on USFSA technical committees. As yet no final determination has been made.

ISIA is an association of 500 rink owners and managers from the U.S. and a few foreign countries. Business is conducted by officers and a board of directors, supported by an executive director and office located in Wilmette, Illinois. Members meet annually, usually in conjunction with PSGA meetings.

ISIA sponsors and promotes learn-to-skate classes, beginning skill (pre-figure) tests, and carnivals for recreational skaters. More than 55,000 skaters register annually in ISIA programs. Many ISIA "graduates" improve their rudimentary skills by moving up USFSA test ladder and taking individual instruction.

Jurisdictional disputes between USFSA and ISIA (over the authority to devise and administer basic skill tests and to sponsor carnivals involving beginning skaters) were resolved amicably in 1973. USFSA is recognized as the sport governing body while ISIA is free to sponsor basic tests, since there is no conflict with USFSA schedule of figure tests. Carnivals and exhibitions with both USFSA and ISIA members usually are jointly sanctioned.

International Role

USFSA has been a member of the ISU since 1937, and has played an influential role in the figure skating side of the international federation. One U.S. representative currently serves as first vice president for figure skating and other U.S. delegates have important positions on the technical committees.

RESOURCES

Personnel

Many of the 1,500 coaches in this country are members of the Professional Skaters Guild of America. Most are former competitive skaters who have passed most or all USFSA tests. As is true in other sports, few skating coaches have had training in related disciplines (general physical education, music, dance, choreography, physiology, nutrition, body conditioning) that would enhance their coaching skills.

More than one thousand certified judges, plus referees, scoring accountants and other officials, run various competitions in the U.S. There are training requirements and basic "trial" periods for officials who serve as judges, scoring accountants, and referees in tests and competitions, but these are not necessarily standardized or evenly applied in all sections of the country, nor is any prior skating experience required. A number of officials are parents of skaters.

Funding

Two separate entities generate income for the sport: USFSA and USFSA Memorial Fund. USFSA has an annual operating budget in excess of $500,000. Current assets, investments, and fixed assets as of June 30, 1976, came to $547,793. USFSA's financial summary for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1976, was:

Balance on hand at beginning of year	$222,962
Income:	
Registration, test and sanction fees and club dues	$186,920
Merchandise Sales	85,000
Television	82,500
Subscriptions, advertising and book sales	182,885
Dividends and interest	22,711
Miscellaneous	11,343
Total income	$571,359
Expenses:	
Administration (including production and sales costs)	$448,790
Development (skaters assistance)	34,128
Competition	32,710
Sports Facilities	-0-
Total Expenses	$515,628
Net income for the year	$ 55,731
Balance on hand at year's end	$278,693

The USFSA Memorial Fund's financial statement for fiscal year 1976, ending March 31, 1976, follows:

Fund balance at beginning of year	$226,166
Income:	
Contributions	$147,129
USOC (1975 payment)	13,000

Dividends and interest	11,604
Miscellaneous	5,632
Total income	$177,365
Expenses:	
Administration	$ 7,200
Development (scholarship program and skaters assistance)*	138,217
Competition	-0-
Sports facilities	-0-
Miscellaneous	9,945
Total expenses	$148,362
Net income for the year	$ 29,003
Fund balance at end of year	255,169

Additional support from USOC development funds brought figure skating $21,500 in 1976, and another $9,000 for team preparation. Total USOC pre-Olympic funds during the 1973-76 quadrennial was $79,200. All games-related expenses incurred by U.S. Olympic figure skaters, including team travel, uniforms, room and board, event tickets, etc., came to more than $14,000 and were covered by the USOC.

Facilities

Rinks are used for all kinds of ice-related sports, including figure skating, speed skating, and ice hockey. There are approximately 1,400 artificially refrigerated, mostly indoor, ice rinks in nearly every state in the union except Hawaii and three or four states in the Deep South. Many are open year-round and more than half are commercial, although in the last few years some communities have reached a saturation point and several commercial rinks declared bankruptcy. Municipal rinks, usually subsidized by the community, have contributed to this situation. While creating more interest in the sport by providing more artificial ice, these rinks have not necessarily boosted figure skating development. Most of the ice time is devoted to recreational skating, little or no time is reserved for advanced skating sessions and usually only minimal instruction is available.

In some parts of the country any number of natural lakes, ponds, and other flooded surfaces freeze over in the winter and can be prepared for recreational skating. The availability of these facilities is dependent on the weather, although shading devices can extend the season.

Costs of constructing indoor, refrigerated ice facilities range from $400,000 to more than $1.5 million, depending upon the size of ice surface, location, land costs, building materials, installed seating capacity, club rooms, dressing rooms and other amenities. Many newer facilities contain two ice surfaces under one roof, a full-sized hockey rink (usually 85' x 185' or 200') and a smaller studio rink for instruction.

Ice time is not always available in sufficient quantities for testing and competitive training programs. For practical purposes, the best density for figure skating practices is 20-30 skaters, and is even lower for dance and pair sessions. Therefore, rink owners can make much more money renting ice to hockey teams or having 100 to 500 skaters in a public session than by allocating time to figure skaters.

As a result, figure skating practices, especially school figure sessions, usually are relegated to the early morning and late evening hours when the ice cannot readily be sold to the general public. Only a handful of private, club-owned rinks in the country cater almost exclusively to figure skaters, apportioning the ice time accordingly.

Cost to Participants

Figure skating is one of the more expensive Olympic sports. The following figures are based on actual, approximated expenses of one world-class U.S. figure skater in 1976-77.

COSTS OF COMPETITIVE FIGURE SKATING

Direct Costs

Item	Annual Cost
1. Lessons	
Skating coach (3 lessons a day at $10 each)	$ 6,600
Special coach (2-3 lessons a week)	1,600
Ballet instruction (3 hours a week)	1,600
2. Ice rental time (5-6 hours a day)	3,000
3. Equipment	
Custom-made boots (4 pairs)	1,000
Blades (2 pairs)	220
Two specially designed competition dresses	750
Practice and competition clothes (sweaters, gloves, dresses, jackets, leotards)	1,500
4. Medical	-0-
5. Travel	
Day-to-day practice (100 miles a day by car)	3,350
Regional competition (1 week)	
—Athlete: air fare, room and board	200
—Coach's expenses (total cost shared with other pupils)	100
National Championships (3 weeks)	
—Athlete: air fare, room and board	400
—Coach's expenses (total cost shared with other pupils)	200
Two International Championships	
—Athlete (most travel and housing costs met by U.S.	

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*A small percentage of this money, $13,000, comes from USOC development funds.

Figure Skating Association or host sponsor)	300
—Coach's expenses	1,300
Olympic Games and World Championships (45 days in Europe)	
—Athlete (travel and housing costs assumed by the U.S. Olympic Committee)	-0-
Coach's expenses	3,250
Nine domestic amateur ice carnivals (Costs assumed by host clubs)	-0-
6. Food Expenses	
Special vitamins and food supplements ($3 a day)	1,080
7. Correspondence school	200
8. Club dues, entry fees	200
Sub-Total	$26,850

Indirect Costs

Item	Annual Cost
1. Travel	
Regional competition (Two Family members as chaperones)	250
National Championships (Two family members as chaperones)	600
Two International Championships (one chaperone)	1,400
Olympics and World Championships (45 days in Europe—one chaperone)	3,250
Nine domestic amateur ice shows (one chaperone—costs paid by host clubs)	-0-
2. Telephone	
Overseas calls	150
Sub-total	$ 5,650
Total of direct and indirect costs	$32,500
Outside Support	
1. Training grant from USFSA	2,000
Costs assumed by skater's family	$30,500

All skating equipment and accessories are widely available in this country, although there are only a few small manufacturers for these items and they are often faced with a backlog of orders. Cheaper, mass-produced skating equipment is available in most sporting goods stores, but is generally not of suitable quality for serious training efforts.

Ice rental fees are usually $1.50 to $2 an hour per skater for group sessions. Rink rental charges average $60 an hour or more and are rising because of increasing energy costs. Annual ice time bills for skaters who train five to eight hours a day can run from $2,000 to $3,500.

Skaters incur additional expenses travelling to and from training venues, summer skating schools, exhibitions and domestic competitions. Foreign travel as a member of a U.S. team usually is paid for by USFSA. Room and meal expenses at domestic competitions are borne by the individual skaters; in foreign competitions, the host country or skating association usually covers the cost.

USFSA membership fees are $6, which includes a subscription to "Skating" magazine. Local club dues can run $15 or more. National fee schedules for skating tests average $1 to $5. However, skaters may be charged by a club for ice time plus transportation costs to bring in qualified judges, if none are available locally. Entry fees for sectional and national competitions are $35 to $50.

Skating coaches usually incur a loss of income whenever they accompany their skaters to competition, because they are missing lessons with pupils left behind. This is particularly true for international meets. Coaches of skaters on the 1976 U.S. Olympic Team estimated they lost as much as $5,000 each during the four to six weeks they were away. Their travel costs and expenses generally are borne by their own skaters, putting another financial burden on world-class athletes.

In domestic competition the host club usually pays expenses for judges, referees and scoring accountants. For international competitions or ISU meetings, USFSA pays for its officials or delegates to attend. Local, certified judges used for most skating test sessions donate their time and travel costs.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

An estimated six million Americans skate for recreation at least once a year. Of that number close to 90,000 receive some kind of formal instruction, either individually or in groups. Several thousand take more advanced figure, dance and pair tests sponsored by USFSA. More than 9,000 tests were passed between March 1975 and March 1976. From this base, approximately 2,500 skaters compete in USFSA sanctioned meets leading up to the U.S. Championships in which 140 skaters take part each year.

On the organizational side, 354 recognized skating clubs in 45 states conduct grass-roots skating programs of various kinds, sponsor tests, and host competitions. ISIA, in conjunction with PSGA members, conducts beginning classes for figure skating in most indoor rinks. This is the basic building block for development.

Many people are stimulated to take up the sport by TV coverage of skating events and by the dazzling spectacle of professional ice shows, but clubs are the key to figure skating development in the U.S. since the sport is not included in the athletic programs of educational institutions.

Skating clubs conduct all skating tests, sponsor carnivals, exhibitions, and competitions, hire professional coaches, and make ice time available to their members. Some clubs are solvent enough to assist their athletes with the expenses of competition. Club programs build on the fundamental skills of recreational skaters, encouraging them to improve through the test and competition ladder. Most clubs have a professional staff of one or more coaches. Although no formal skating programs are conducted in schools, colleges, or universities (except for some basic physical education classes), a few universities and prep schools sponsor club programs.

From a skater's standpoint, major barriers to taking part in the sport include:

- The cost of equipment, lessons, and travel, which can run as high as $15,000 to $20,000 a year;
- The lack of rinks and ice time in certain areas of the country, especially in large metropolitan areas such as New York City and Chicago;
- The low priority assigned to figure skating programs in many rinks (behind the more lucrative public sessions and hockey programs), resulting in insufficient time allotted to figure skating practices; and
- The absence of adequate professional coaching in some parts of the country to develop beginning skaters to world-class caliber.

Athlete Development

Athletes of almost any age interested in improving their skills may do so, starting with strictly recreational skating on lakes, streams, or rinks, developing through learn-to-skate classes, and finally progressing up the test levels provided under USFSA auspices.

Although skating is an individual sport, the working relationship between coach and athlete is as vital to success as the skill and aptitude of both. However, no matter how effective a coach is at challenging the skater to greater achievements, if neither of them is aware of advances in technique and conditioning success can be elusive. Research in sports medicine and its application to figure skating is virtually unexplored territory in this country. Physiology, kinesiology and sports psychology, as well as proper nutrition, body conditioning and off-ice exercise, are just beginning to be studied.

Breaking out of the historical mold of the "personal" coach system, privately sponsored clinics in the last year or two have brought together coaching teams to improve the technique and style of top national skaters prior to major competitions. This has proven so successful that USFSA is likely to sponsor these activities on a more regular basis.

Coach Development

Most coaches are trained only in skills learned as a test and competitive skater; few have learned formal teaching skills, since it generally is assumed that anyone who can compete can teach. Most coaches lack formal study of the body sciences, the physics of movement and motion, nutrition, choreography, motivational training, and other related fields. This is a shortcoming in development of most sports in the U.S., compared to advances being made in Europe through formal sports institutes for coaches, trainers, and athletes.

Recognizing this need, PSGA has begun to sponsor seminars, clinics, and other activities (usually in the spring and fall, and in conjunction with the national convention) designed to enhance its members teaching skills and techniques. PSGA also has instituted a voluntary five-step rating system for its members, which includes written and, in the case of the top "master" rating, oral examinations and requirements to attend PSGA continuing skating education workshops at least every two years.

Training of Officials

Judges and other officials are trained under USFSA auspices. A period of trial judging is required at each of the test levels—low, intermediate and high—before a candidate is evaluated and can be appointed as a judge. When test judges are appointed, they may seek a separate designation as a competition judge. Again, a period of trial judging at each level is required before an appointment is made. Judges must maintain an active, up-to-date knowledge of the sport by judging tests frequently, attending judges schools at least every three years, and taking a periodic open-book examination based on the USFSA rulebook. Referees and competition accountants also have schooling and examination requirements. Unfortunately, USFSA sponsored judges schools are not held regularly in each region, which often makes it a hardship for volunteers to attend the necessary sessions.

The current system has been moderately successful in recruiting the numbers of officials needed to maintain the activity of the national governing body, but at the sectional level standardization often has been lacking in the schooling practices and in the evaluation of applicants. Further, no formal program exists to recruit and train the largest potential body of judges and officials: the current generation of competitive and test skaters.

International Judges

Spectators of world and Olympic competition often are incensed by apparent judging inequities.

Results are determined by the subjective opinions of an international panel of nine judges. The scoring system is quite complicated and final placement of skaters is determined by majority ordinals (ranking order of the competitors by each judge). Often judges mark skaters from their own country higher than do the other judges; East European judges often vote in a bloc in awarding high marks to East European skaters. Also, a skater's "seniority" and past performance record are often a conscious or unconscious factor in a judge's mark, sometimes making it difficult for a new international skater to earn the scores his or her actual performance deserves. There is little the U.S. can do to counteract this problem except to advocate more standardized qualifications and requirements for international judges.

Judging bias is not generally a problem in this country. An unofficial USFSA rating system helps to weed out judges who are consistently out of line. Moreover, judges who do not maintain an active role in judging tests and competitions also are dropped from the ranks.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

All U.S. figure skating tests and competitions are held according to ISU rules. The only required difference between the men's and women's events is the length of the free skating program—four minutes for women and five for men.

Domestic

A series of competitions at the regional level are held beginning each November or December as qualifying meets for sectional and national competitions. Eligibility for singles, pairs, and dance events is determined by the number of tests passed and not by the age of the skaters.

In addition to qualifying meets, there are a number of open and invitational non-qualifying competitions in free skating, figures, pairs, and dance held throughout the year, sponsored by clubs or summer skating school programs. Many clubs also have their own closed competitions for members. Most skaters also take part in amateur ice shows and exhibitions at the local level, to demonstrate their talents and, in some cases, to help raise funds for their clubs.

International

Major international competitions include the Olympic Games (quadrennial), the World Championships (annual), the North American Championships (biennial), the Junior Worlds and a growing series of invitational meets, such as Moscow Skate, Prague Skate, the Richmond Trophy, and Skate Canada.

U.S. teams for international competitions are selected by USFSA's international committee. Generally, the top place winners from the Nationals automatically are chosen for the World and Olympic teams. However, an effort is made to select other senior level skaters for foreign invitational meets to give more skaters the international experience and seasoning. Some competitions, such as the Junior World Championships, also have an age requirement.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Among U.S. amateur sports figure skating maintains an enviable record in terms of having adequate facilities, top coaching talent, a large participation base of athletes, and a distinguished list of world and Olympic champions. Skating "graduates" also have lifetime career possibilities either as professional coaches or as members of several professional ice shows.

Currently the sport benefits from:

- A long tradition as a favorite spectator sport, enhanced by seasonal media coverage and the attraction of the ever-popular ice shows;
- A strong club system that carries out training and testing programs at the local level and feeds into the national association;
- A capable administration of volunteer workers and officers, assisted by a large (by NGB standards) full-time staff and officers;
- Plentiful, year-round ice rinks, staffed by some of the best qualified coaches in the world;
- An active fund-raising campaign, which provides the funds for training and educational grants to top skaters and insures that all expenses of international teams are paid by the association;
- A history of holding international and world championships in this country; and
- Good working relationships among the major groups in the sport—USFSA, PSGA and ISIA.

The groundwork for still greater advances could be made in the sport by:

(1) Opening up USFSA membership to skating coaches and appointing PSGA members to the technical committees;

(2) Setting up or designating regional training centers to provide adequate training time and instruction on a year-round basis;

(3) Examining means of subsidizing the spiralling costs of ice time and coaching, to open up the sport to a broader range of participants;

(4) Actively recruiting and training current skaters as judges, and making judges schools more readily available to all participants;

(5) Bringing athlete representatives into the formal administration of the sport;

(6) Increasing the number of clinics for various aspects of the sport, to which top skaters and teams of coaches are invited;

(7) Encouraging research in sports medicine and making findings related to figure skating more readily available;

(8) Making better use of the U.S. national team in fund-raising efforts and in furthering public interest;

(9) Providing national team members, on a regular or need basis, with training assistance, specialized clinics, education and career counseling services, and health care services; and

(10) Providing assistance or international travel grants to coaches of national team members, and giving them full status as members of the official team delegation when travelling abroad.

GYMNASTICS

Gymnastics, one of the oldest competitive sports, was an event in the original Olympic Games in Greece and has been on the Olympic calendar since the start of the modern Games in 1896. The sport has undergone dramatic changes in style and content, particularly in women's gymnastics wherein the balance between dance and acrobatics continues to shift.

Always a popular spectator sport in other parts of the world, gymnastics in the U. S. since 1972 has seen a dramatic increase in both spectators and participants. Consistent with most definitions of the term, gymnastics in this country has moved from minor sport to major sport status.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

The 1972 Olympic Games provided a tremendous stimulus to the popularity and growth of U. S. gymnastics, particularly women's gymnastics, in large part because the Soviet Union's Olga Korbut gave youngsters in this country a new idol. The timing of this stimulus was particularly appropriate, since the long standing franchise question in gymnastics (see section on Organization) finally was settled, with the U. S. Gymnastics Federation (USGF) being awarded the franchise. Since 1972, the number of world class U. S. gymnasts (both men and women) has expanded from about 10 to about 40 total. Private clubs, gymnastics camps, and school programs for women have greatly increased in number while those for men are beginning to show significant growth.

Ethnic-based clubs (e.g., American Turners, Swiss Turners, American Sokols) were the major source of gymnastics activity prior to the early 1960s. However, as members of these clubs began to disperse over a wider geographic area and as schools and multi-sport clubs introduced more programs in gymnastics, these ethnic-based clubs became relatively less important. Physical education classes in gymnastics led to interscholastic competition and, more recently, greater popular interest has spurred the establishment of private clubs and camps devoted to the development and training of gymnasts.

Despite these gains, however, the U. S. faces a real problem in the international arena. Unless the apparent collaboration and bias frequently evident between judges at the Olympic Games and other international competitions is corrected, U. S. efforts and resources will be wasted; politics, not performances, will determine the winners.

Significant differences exist in the administration of the women's and the men's programs in the U. S. Brief descriptions of the two programs follow.

U. S. Women's Gymnastics Programs

The women's program is essentially club-based rather than school-based; few coaches have ever been involved in physical education. Women's coaches tend to be both protective and possessive of "their" athletes; generally, they are not comfortable in trusting other coaches to work with their athletes and personally accompany them to meets in order to coach from the sidelines. This may be attributed in part to the youthfulness of most U. S. women competitors (junior high and high school age), as well as to the psychological or ego reinforcement some coaches derive from their athletes' performance. However, women's elite coaches generally appear to be moving toward a more liberal and cooperative attitude in this regard.

To qualify for the U. S. Olympic team a female athlete must be registered as a USGF associate member, and must compete in certain designated regional and national meets under USGF auspices. One reason for this is to standardize the rules under which women compete, since high school and college rules are different from USGF (or international) rules. Rules of competition in schools are set by administrators, not coaches; many of these administrators are less concerned with USGF rules than with the development of rules complementary to their overall athletic program.

At the high school level, many women who coach girl gymnasts are afraid of injuries and tend to restrict their athletes' growth by being very cautious in trying out new or difficult moves. In addition, since many high schools have changed their gymnastics season from the traditional winter to fall so that indoor gymnasium facilities are more readily available, serious and dedicated athletes prepare by working with clubs during the summer and continue their training with clubs after their school season ends. College scholarships thus tend to go primarily to gymnasts from club programs rather than to those trained only in the schools.

There is a national administrator position for the USGF women's program which has no equivalent in the men's program. The women's administrator is responsible for coordinating programs, attending international competitions, and stimulating the incorporation of Olympic development into existing programs.

Some problems in the women's program:

1) Coaches who serve on the USGF women's committees stand to gain financially if their gymnasts (and therefore their clubs) become well known. Committee policy decisions, while normally very sound, are nonetheless made by individuals with highly vested interests.

2) Approved, standard job descriptions for the chairmen of the USGF Women's Technical Committee and other sub-committees of the Women's Committee do not exist, resulting in confusion as to the scope of responsibilities and the basis for evaluation of persons in these positions.

3) In women's gymnastics, but not in men's, a coach can protest scores he or she feels are unreasonable, easily leading to rifts between coaches and judges in women's gymnastics.

U. S. Men's Gymnastics Program

U. S. men's gymnastics is primarily a school-based program, and men's coaches are basically physical educators. Men's coaches are more willing than women's coaches to let their athletes work under someone else; in many cases, they encourage such exchanges. For example, on tours or trips and even at training camps prior to international competition, men's coaches don't usually accompany their gymnasts, letting the team coach work with them instead. Part of this stems from the attitude that the gymnasts are "college men," old enough to be both mature and independent.

Men may qualify for the U. S. Olympic Trials through participation in meets sponsored by various organizations – Amateur Athletic Union (AAU), Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA), National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCCA), etc. The AAU, YMCA, and the American Turners Association have started to use Federation Internationale de Gymnastique (FIG) competitive rules for routines and meets, so that competitors winning their meets are recognized by USGF.

Events in International Competition

In international competition, each team member must enter into all-around competition, performing two routines on each of four (women) or six (men) pieces of apparatus. The first routines are compulsory exercises, determined by FIG at the beginning of each Olympiad, which must be performed exactly as they are written. The second set of routines consists of optional exercises, original routines which must meet certain requirements of composition, difficulty, and execution.

For Olympic and other international competitions, each country is entitled to a men's and a women's team, each composed of six competitors, one alternate, a coach and a manager.

Men compete in six events in international and Olympic competition. Medals may be won in each of these events, in the all-around, and in team competition. All-around awards are based on the cumulative scores of individual gymnasts for compulsory and optional routines on all six pieces of apparatus. Team awards are based on cumulative scores for the top five athletes on each team. The events and available medals are as follows:

Long Horse Vault	3 medals
Side Horse	3 medals
Horizontal Bar	3 medals
Parallel Bars	3 medals
Rings	3 medals
Floor Exercise	3 medals
All-Around	3 medals
Team	3 medals
TOTAL	24 medals

Women compete in four events in international and Olympic competition. Medals may be won in each of these events, in the all-around, and in team competition. The four events and medals available are as follows:

Balance Beam	3 medals
Uneven Parallel Bars	3 medals
Side Horse Vault	3 medals
Floor Exercise	3 medals
All-Around	3 medals
Team	3 medals
TOTAL	18 medals

Judging for men and women gymnasts is based on the FIG Codes of Points, developed by the FIG men's and women's technical committees. These points include point additions for difficulty, composition, and execution as well as point deductions for specific faults. A perfect routine (compulsory or optional) in any event would be awarded a 10.0. Scores less than 8.5 are rarely given in Olympic competition.

History of World Ranking

The U. S. first entered a men's gymnastics team in the 1904 Olympic Games and has never been top ranked. The best team finish in the Olympics was fifth in 1960. The Bronze Medal in floor exercise at Montreal was the first U. S. Olympic medal since 1932.[1] The USSR entered men's Olympic gymnastic competition in 1952 and quickly became the world leader. In the 1960s, however, Japan took over as dominant country in the sport. These two countries are very closely matched in team performance. The top six men's teams, as a result of the 1974 World Championships in Varna, Bulgaria, were: Japan, Russia, East Germany, Hungary, West Germany and Romania. U. S. men placed eighth. As a result of the 1976 Olympics, the leading nations are Japan, Russia and East Germany.

The U. S. first entered a women's gymnastics team in the 1936 Olympics. Since then, the U. S. has won only two medals. A Bronze in the balance beam event in 1936 and a team Bronze in 1948. U. S. women have shown tremendous improvement over a 12-year period, moving from ninth place in the 1960 Games to fourth at Munich in 1972. This achievement was short lived, however, since in the 1974 World Championships the U. S. women's team finished seventh and in the Montreal Games placed sixth.

The Russians first entered a women's gymnastics team in the 1952 Games and have dominated women's gymnastics ever since. The top six teams, after the 1974 World Championships were Russia, East Germany, Hungary, Romania, Czechoslovakia and Japan. Since then, however, the Romanians have emerged as strong contenders for the top spot, finishing second to Russia, and ahead of East Germany in the 1976 Olympics.

Men's events were included in the first Pan American Games in 1955. Women's events were added in 1959. The U. S. consistently has dominated Pan Am gymnastics, with most recent challenges coming primarily from the Cuban team.

ORGANIZATION

A number of organizations and their members conduct programs in the sport of gymnastics. First and foremost is the U. S. Gymnastics Federation (USGF), which is the national governing body. Its voting membership is composed of all those national-level constituent organizations that either administer development and competitive programs, or coordinate activities of individuals with a common purpose (e.g., college men's coaches, mens' judges). These organizations are briefly described in the following pages, along with the U. S. Olympic Games Committee for gymnastics.

National Governing Body

Since 1970 the national governing body (NGB) for U. S. gymnastics has been the U. S. Gymnastics Federation (USGF). Prior to that the international franchise was held by the AAU.

USGF originally was created by a committee called together by the NCAA in what has come to be called the Federation Movement of the early 1960s. The NCAA brought together a number of coaches, athletes, and administrators to discuss the organization of a number of U. S. amateur sports, one of which was gymnastics. This group concluded that, in some sports, the organization holding the international franchise was not representative of the organizations primarily responsible for athlete development in this country. The group therefore recommended that federations be established in selected sports with membership open to all organizations conducting national level programs in the sport. Constituent groups would appoint delegates directly to the policy-forming and directing board, and delegates of no one organization could control the voting of the entire federation membership.

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[1] 1976 was the first year that only two competitors per country were permitted medals in the all-around competition.

Gymnastics was one of five federations established by the NCAA and its conference affiliates, the National Junior Collegiate Athletic Association (NJCAA), the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA), and other sports organizations such as YMCA, American Sokol, American Turners, and the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER). The AAU, serving as the gymnastics NGB at the time, was not willing to join USGF when it was founded.

Shortly after its formation, USGF wrote a letter to the U. S. Olympic Committee (USOC) to find out how an organization might seek the international franchise in gymnastics, then held by the AAU. In testimony before the Commission USGF stated that the USOC responded "any change in Group A in the USOC and any recognition of an organization as a sport governing body in the U. S. would necessarily have to be preceded by a recognition of membership from the international federation involved."

USGF then asked FIG how to apply for the franchise. The FIG president stated that the matter was of a "purely internal American nature" and that "for this reason only we dare and are not willing to interfere into this affair."

From 1963 to 1970 USGF pursued the task of developing a national gymnastics program while continuing to seek the international franchise. FIG felt that the AAU was not doing an adequate job in governing gymnastics in the U. S. and was therefore interested in USGF's proposal. However, FIG favored the integration of both groups into one body and, to encourage this, formed a ten-man committee (five AAU and five USGF representatives) at the international level. This did not achieve the desired merger, so in 1970 FIG invited each organization to present its arguments for receiving the U. S. franchise. FIG voting members at the meeting found that USGF was increasing its affiliated club membership, was buying up more rule books, and was initiating elite judges' training programs. In 1970, at FIG's annual Congress in Yugoslavia, more than two-thirds of the membership present voted to accept USGF as the representative organization. (For additional information on this franchise change in gymnastics, see the chapter in Volume I on Resolution of Franchise Disputes).

The AAU applied for USGF membership in 1971, and was promised the following terms in a letter from USGF: the AAU could continue its junior and senior gymnastics programs, would get three votes on the USGF Council, and could continue to conduct the official Junior Olympic Program in gymnastics. In fact, AAU was given only two votes on the USGF Council and USGF initiated its own Junior Olympic program. These differences from original promises by USGF caused the conflict between the AAU and USGF to continue long after the franchise question was resolved.

There are documented cases of scheduling conflicts, which appear to be more than coincidental, between the two organizations. The rights to the use of the Olympic name in Junior Olympics, held historically by the AAU, were challenged by the USGF. The USOC permitted both organizations to use the name Olympic—the AAU through invoking a "grandfather clause" and USGF through its stature as the NGB. Also, when the U. S. tour of Russian gymnasts was arranged in 1973 through Fabergé, Inc., that company contacted the AAU, not knowing that the event required USGF sanction. The AAU did not inform Fabergé of this, and perhaps would have co-sponsored the tour had not Fabergé stumbled onto USGF and received its sanction.

USGF is a private non-profit federation with thirteen active member organizations. "Active members" are defined as "qualified national organizations whose members conduct quality programs in the sport of gymnastics on a national basis." An applicant is judged by "whether its members directly sponsor and conduct regular, seasonal competition throughout the nation and demonstrate substantial financing and support of the program through investment in facilities, equipment, instructional personnel and competitive schedules. The applicant's election (to membership) and the number of votes afforded it on the Governing Council shall be based upon said evaluation." The thirteen active members appoint delegates to the USGF Governing Council (i.e., Board of Directors). The Active Members and their Council votes are: AAHPER (1), The American Turners Association (1), National Association of Collegiate Gymnastics Coaches (men) (1), National Association of High School Gymnastics Coaches (1), NCAA (4), NFSHSA (3), NJCAA (2), National Gymnastics Judges Association (1), YMCA (1), American Sokol Organization (1), AAU (2), NAIA (1) and U. S. Association of Independent Gym Clubs (1), for a total of 20 votes. These Council members serve for two-year staggered terms, with no constitutional limit on the number of terms served. Some delegates are elected by their sponsoring organizations while others, particularly those from the educational associations, are appointed.

No athletes actually sit on the USGF Governing Council, although provision is made for their representation. Several years ago, two (non-voting) athletes were designated but proved ineffective. One dropped out because of lack of time; the other found it necessary to continually request guidance from the USGF Executive Director on what to say. Athletes generally feel their coaches represent their needs to the USGF but state that they receive little communication back on policies, schedules, rules, etc., affecting them directly.

The Governing Council elects an Executive Committee composed of a President, Vice President for Men, Vice President for Women, Secretary and two At-Large Officers. Members of this Committee are elected for staggered two-year terms, and do not have to be the constituent organization representatives who serve on the USGF Council.

Since the USGF is a federation, its only formal, voting members are the 13 active member organizations. New members may be elected to the Council by a two-thirds vote of the Council. However, corporations or individuals engaged in amateur gymnastics may belong as informal Associate or Sustaining members, by a two-thirds vote of the Governing Council. These members range in age from eight to 60 years of age and are divided about equally between men and women. Associate and Sustaining members have a voice but no vote on USGF matters. Annual dues are $100 per vote per active member, $25 per Associate member, and $250 per Sustaining member.

Numerous USGF committees handle specific issues or areas of business within the organization. These standing committees are provided for in the USGF constitution and their composition is determined primarily by tradition. The Men's Technical Committee (MTC) is composed of coaches responsible for all technical aspects connected with men's gymnastics. The Men's Foreign Relations Committee (MFRC), presently 10 coaches, is responsible for all matters pertaining to international gymnastics competition, tours and visiting teams.

The Women's Committee (WC) is responsible for all technical regulations, judges' training and certification, teacher education clinics, review of women's educational publications, rules and policies for competition at the developmental and elite levels and implementation of the National Developmental Program for Artistic and Modern Gymnastics. It presently has a part-time (80%) salaried administrator with a business and management background, but no staff. To raise money, the Women's Committee collected individual membership dues from individuals involved in womens' gymnastics; now these dues go directly into the USGF budget.

Sub-committees of the Women's Committee include:

- Modern Competitive Rhythmic Gymnastics Committee,
- Women's Judges Training Committee,
- Joint Judges Certification Committee (with National Association for Girls and Women's Sports), and
- Women's Technical Committee (WTC). From 1970 to 1972 there were only judges on this Committee. In 1972 three coaches were added, and by 1974 the total was eight coaches, one from each USGF region. Present membership on this committee is eight coaches, eight regional technical directors (Judges), one national head coach, and one national women's technical chairman.

The Women's Foreign Relations Committee (WFRC), presently eight coaches, is identical to the MFRC, but there is no formal relationship between the WFRC and the Women's Technical Committee. It has been suggested that the WTC chairman sit on the WFRC. While some individuals do serve on both committees, there is no single official interpretation of meeting results.

The Nominating Committee (five to seven members) is appointed by the USGF President for the purpose of preparing a slate of candidates for officer positions. Newly-established standing committee members are appointed by the USGF Governing Council from a slate of nominees prepared by the Committee on Committees. The USGF Constitution provides for succeeding chairmen to be elected by the respective committees.

USGF has five staff members, two of whom are paid full-time employees. The Executive Director (full-time), the assistant to the Executive Director (part-time), and two secretaries (one full-time, one part-time) work in USGF headquarters in Tucson, Arizona. Until January of 1977, the womens' administrator has been employed part-time by USGF and has had an office in Chicago. After that time, a full-time womens' administrator will be employed in the Tucson office.

Only the women's program has a designated National Coach. The idea was first approved by the USGF Women's Technical Committee in 1973. This position carries no authority to impose national interpretations of compulsory exercises or to require attendance at elite clinics, etc. The position has not yet achieved its full potential because of limited resources and backing; only minimal travel expenses have been available. Additionally, program ideas have all had to go through USGF hierarchy for review and approval, with attendant delays and, frequently, assignment to low priority.

USGF is organized into eight geographic regions, each of which has a Technical Committee, Governing Board of Judges, Technical Director, Coaching Staff, Head Coach, and Judging Director for men and women. Regional activities include: meet sanctioning; clinic sanctioning, reporting, state Congresses, records of gymnasts' ages, scores and ability levels, standardization of fee structures for regional clinics, membership drives, newsletters, and workshops. At the State level, the volunteer structure includes a State Judging Director and a State Governing Board for Judges.

USGF sponsors and assists its members in sponsoring a full schedule of development and competition activities for athletes, coaches, and judges. These will be described more fully under the Development and Competition sections of this report. In addition to arranging for and administering competitions, tours, exhibitions, training camps, clinics and seminars, USGF also publishes rulebooks, manuals, workbooks, bulletins, and books for members' own information and use as teaching/judging tools.

Relationship with International Federation

U. S. representatives attend three to four FIG delegate meetings per year. Representatives from 62 nations belong to FIG and meet in full Congress every year. The general assembly, the highest authority and ultimate court of appeal for FIG, meets more frequently, while Technical Committees for men and women, the Directorate Committee, and the Presidential Committee meet as needed. FIG officers consist of a president, three vice-presidents, and one secretary-treasurer. There is a staff of five, an Executive Committee, and two technical committees (for men's and women's competition). The FIG international Judges Committee consists of seven members, only one of whom, at the present time, is under 55 years of age.

USGF has frequently been applauded as a model of the vertical structure concept. Commendably, the voting membership of the USGF Governing Council is made up of all major constituent organizations that have applied through established channels. Further, a regionally organized subnational structure carries out developmental and competitive activities and elects coaches and judges to regional and national USGF committees. At the same time, however, the delegates who serve on the USGF Council are selected to their positions by their own organizations. While they may serve the best interests of the sport through their decisions, they nonetheless are accountable only to the organizations that put them on the Council, rather than to the individuals who make up the sport. Also, there is no provision to ensure balanced representation on the Council between the interests of the women's program and those of the men's. In fact, there are no definitive criteria in the USGF Constitution for those who serve on the Governing Council.

Other Major Organizations

All thirteen organizational (Active) USGF members have gymnastics programs. The only other national level groups active in gymnastics are the USOC Men's and Women's Gymnastics Committees[2] and independent associations, not yet members of USGF. Selected organizations are discussed briefly below.

U. S. Olympic Games Committees

The U. S. Olympic Men's Gymnastics Committee has 15 members. One delegate is appointed by each of the following organizations: AAU, YMCA, NFSHSA, AAHPER, Turners, Sokol, and the Military. In addition, eight delegates are appointed from USGF. Membership on the U. S. Olympic Women's Gymnastics Committee is the same except there is no military representative and only seven USGF delegates. During the quadrennial 1973-76, the USOC spent funds in gymnastics for coaches' symposia, judges' symposia, an Olympic Development Camp, and international tours and competitions.

After 1976, it is not clear who will assume the responsibilities now carried out by the USOC Games Committees. The spectrum of opinion on this ranges from endorsement of an all-coaches committee to a non-coaches committee to a committee of representatives from all national organizations with gymnastics programs. In any case, USGF will have full responsibility to form this replacement committee.

Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA)

A national operating council for gymnastics coordinates gymnastics programs offered by local YMCAs. The national council also sponsors the annual YMCA junior and senior national gymnastics championships.

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[2] These are scheduled to be phased out early in the 1977-80 Quadrennial.

Amateur Athletic Union (AAU)

The AAU Gymnastics Junior Olympics program is administered by the AAU Junior Olympic (J.O.) Administrative Committee, which is responsible for all AAU sports with J.O. programs. All other AAU gymnastics activities are administered by separate men's and women's committees for gymnastics with the assistance of a part-time AAU administrator for gymnastic championships.

Members of the Men's Gymnastics Committee include representatives of the 58 AAU District Associations, American Sokol Organization, American Turners Association, National Jewish Welfare Board (NJWB), De Molay, Army, YMCA, at-large representatives, and five athlete representatives.

Members of the Women's Gymnastics Committee include representatives of the 58 AAU District Associations, AAPHER, Sokol, National Jewish Welfare Board (NJWB), Army, YMCA, National Recreation and Parks Association, Inc., and seven at-large representatives.

The respective chairmen of the men's and women's committees appoint men's and women's technical committees which serve in an advisory capacity. There is also a sub-committee on Women's Gymnastics Rules. All AAU committees' rulings are subject to approval by the Board of Governors.

The AAU Gymnastic Committees derive revenue from junior and senior national championships (i.e., entry fees, television rights). Development and competition costs generally are absorbed by local clubs, sponsors for events, and individual athletes or their parents.

Major programs include:

- –Junior and Senior National Championships;[3]
- –Junior Olympics (strictly all-around competition);
- –AAU men's meets, approved by USGF as qualifying meets for Olympic trials competition;
- –AAU women's meets, disapproved by USGF women's committee as Olympic qualifying meets because of a concern over standardized rules of competition and judging being used at all qualifying meets;
- –Grass roots development programs, AAU's strength in gymnastics (its role at higher competitive levels is minor); and
- –Age Group Programs.

Since the AAU lost the franchise in gymnastics to USGF in 1970, it has decreased its program substantially and no longer sponsors international events.

National Association of Women's Gymnastics Judging (NAWGJ)

Founded in 1974 to accommodate the rapidly growing number of gymnastics judges, NAWGJ is an independent organization which trains and certifies judges and assigns them for all domestic competitions, age group through elite. An organization holding a gymnastics meet submits criteria for the selection of judges. NAWGJ then assigns judges after receiving input from state and regional officials and meet director. For elite competition and above, NAWGJ makes recommendations to USGF which then designates the judges to be used. Geographical distribution is sought on national judging panels.

National Collegiate Women's Gymnastics Coaches Association (NCWGCA)

This organization was formed in November 1975 to advise the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) committee on competitive rules. Two changes it has brought about are 1) requiring that three team members in the nationals compete in the all-around and 2) not requiring compulsories in National Collegiate Women's Gymnastics meets. The first change encouraged more college women gymnasts to adopt the all-around program used in the Olympics. The second change shortened national women's meets, minimizing the potential for injuries occurring to athletes, but minimizing incentives for athletes to train in compulsories.

U. S. Gymnastics Safety Association (USGSA)

This organization was established in 1976 to develop guidelines for safety in education and in gymnastics facilities. Its members are individuals from the gymnastics community and advisory representatives from the insurance, legal and medical professions. This is basically a lobbying organization and is registered with the U. S. Congress for that purpose.

American Sokol Educational and Physical Culture Organization

This organization was founded by Czech im migrants to the U. S. in 1865 but its membership is open to individuals of all nationalities. There are 8,100 registered adult members. Individuals from three to 85 years of age are registered in the gymnastics programs offered by the Sokol organization. Sokol clubs stress development of the body through sports – particularly gymnastics, volleyball, basketball, and track and field – and places considerable emphasis on age group development programs. The organization is divided into six districts, which hold annual gymnastics competitions. A national championship is held by the national organization every four years. The American Sokol Organization does not contribute to USGF except through its one vote and its dues. All coaches who work with the American Sokol are volunteers.

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[3] Minimum age for Junior Women is 13, and 14 for Senior Women. Minimum age for Junior men is 14, and 16 for Senior Men. Age limits may be waived for gymnasts placing first, second or third in the all-around in National Junior Olympic Age Group Championships.

American Turners Association

The American branch of the Turners Association was founded by German immigrants to the U. S. It is composed of clubs oriented toward physical fitness.

National Association of Collegiate Gymnastics Coaches (NACGC) – men

Although approximately 113 colleges have gymnastics programs for men, only about 54 representatives regularly attend NACGC meetings. NACGC recommends policy to all collegiate associations (NJCAA, NAIA, NCAA) but particularly to the NCAA, since most major collegiate gymnastics programs for men are in NCAA-affiliated schools. For example, NACGC has recommended that member colleges use panels of two judges for conference meets and NCAA Championships and that panels of four judges be used for college dual meets. With regard to team composition, there is mixed feeling among coaches about phasing out the specialist gymnast in favor of the all-around gymnast.

NACGC's other responsibilities include:

- Publication and distribution of the NACGC Statistical Report, which is supported by four equipment companies;
- Circulation of periodic newsletters;
- Making awards for outstanding coaches, athletes and researchers;
- Sending a delegate to the USGF Council; and
- Providing a national forum for news on upgrading the sport.

National Men's Gymnastics Judges Association (NMGJA)

This organization recommends judges from among whom USGF selects a panel for Olympic semi-final and final meets. The association is responsible for interpretation of all rules, but is not authorized to make rules for national competitions.

Men's coaches, unlike women's coaches, are allowed to and often do serve as judges in domestic elite competition.

National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA)

The NCAA has a Gymnastics Rules Committee of six persons nominated by the NCAA Committee on Committees. Its decisions are subject to Executive Committee approval. Its membership includes a non-voting high school representative, three representatives from Division I, one representative from each of Divisions II and III, and one member-at-large. One of the voting members must be an athletic director.

The Gymnastics Sports Committee establishes rules under which all collegiate gymnastics competition takes place. One controversial issue concerns the number of all-around gymnasts required on a college team. Until recently only two all-around gymnasts were required to represent colleges in competitive meets. For 1977-78, team composition will be 12 members, with four all-around gymnasts and a maximum of two specialists in each event.

NCAA also has an Extra Events Committee with jurisdiction over a selected number of sports, one of which is gymnastics. Open competitions to which college students are invited must be sanctioned by this committee before student athletes are permitted to compete. USGF is the designated NCAA sanctioning representative when other than college students are involved in the meet.

NCAA has few restrictions directly applicable to gymnastics. The most important one is that high school seniors may not be coached by college coaches. There used to be rules governing the length of the competitive season, but these have been abolished at the national level.

National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA)

NJCAA member schools offer a substantial number of gymnastics programs. More than 13,000 students participated in gymnastics through NJCAA physical education programs during the academic year 1975-76. Nearly 800 students competed on an intramural basis, while 756 students (386 women, 370 men) competed at the intercollegiate level. NJCAA holds annual championships in gymnastics. No athletic scholarships are given for gymnastics by NJCAA member schools.

National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA)

NFSHSA has a boys' and a girls' Gymnastic Rules Committee. The philosophy of each is that athletes should be able to choose whether to be specialists or all-around gymnasts. The Committee feels that broad participation in the sport should be the objective, and that all-around gymnastic development of the most talented will follow.

National Association for Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA)

NAIA member schools conduct intercollegiate programs in gymnastics. However, only 16 member schools reported having varsity gymnastics programs in 1975-76. NAIA holds annual national championships in gymnastics.

American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER)

One of the associations of AAHPER is the National Association of Girls' and Women's Sports (NAGWS). This organization develops rules of conduct and competition for gymnastics meets for college women. These rules are essentially the same as FIG rules, although required numbers of judges and required (use of) compulsory routines are less strict than FIG requirements, in the interest of saving time and money at the lower levels of competition. One member of NAGWS is AIAW, whose member colleges conduct intercollegiate programs in gymnastics. AIAW holds a national championship annually.

RESOURCES

Personnel

USGF employs a full-time Executive Director, a part-time assistant Executive Director, a part-time Women's Administrator and two secretaries, one full-time and one part-time. The AAU, YMCA, NCAA, American Sokol Organization, and American Turners Association all devote some paid staff time to their gymnastics programs. USGF and the other organizations collectively have hundreds of volunteers who donate time to administering and running gymnastics programs in the U. S. All of the USGF Governing Council are part-time, non-salaried volunteers.

Thousands of individuals coach gymnastics in the United States. Many are former competitors, but some have never participated in gymnastics before. Most training in gymnastics available to coaches is provided in the form of clinics or meetings. Most men's coaches are salaried and work within the high schools and colleges. They often supplement their income by working for or managing gymnastics camps in the summer. Most of the top women's coaches work within private clubs. They are often, therefore, self-employed and subject to the economic forces created by that situation.

USGF created a position for a women's national coach in 1974, with expenses but no salary paid. The individual in this position resigned in 1976, reportedly because of insufficient USGF financial and administrative support and because the National Coach was not given sufficient authority to set and implement policies. Present plans do not call for replacing the National Coach and the position may well be phased out. There is no equivalent position for men.

There are 20 female elite judges in the U. S., trained and certified through the NAWGJ, and an equivalent number for men.

Facilities/Equipment

Gymnasia and outdoor facilities suitable for gymnastics are plentiful in the United States. Schools, colleges, military facilities and clubs generally are equipped to some degree. The NCAA, for example, reports that in 1974 there were 790 gyms in 542 of its more than 700 member institutions.

Access to facilities for gymnastics use is a problem in some schools where other sports compete for gym time. In order to be proficient, a gymnast must train all year around, something not always possible with conflicting seasonal demands in different sports.

Access to training facilities is an acute problem in women's gymnastics, since these programs are largely private club-based. Clubs often rent old stores or warehouses since school or military facilities may not be used by "profit-making organizations." In trying to keep costs down, club administrators may be pressured into renting facilities in less desirable neighborhoods, making access more difficult for young gymnasts.

The following equipment is required to train for all six men's Olympic events: parallel bars, rings, horse (for sidehorse and long horse vaulting events), horizontal bars, reuther boards, and floor mats.

Women gymnasts require a beam, uneven parallel bars, horse, reuther boards, and floor mats.

Elite level equipment is particularly expensive since it must meet international specifications. These specifications continue to change to meet new safety and other standards as gymnastic routines become more and more difficult. Some recent changes include: covered beams to replace wooden beams; fiberglass bars to replace wooden parallel/uneven bars; and thicker floor mats.

Funding

USGF is a non-profit tax-exempt organization. Its efforts to seek corporate financial sponsorship have not been successful to date. It has, however, received substantial in-kind contributions from sportswear (e.g., leotards, warm-up suits) and equipment manufacturers. The latter, in particular, have donated equipment to fledgling programs and have sponsored clinics, seminars, and awards.

Major USGF fund-raising activities include Russian tours in the U. S. and the sale of printed materials. Administration is the major expense item.

The following tables show USGF income and expenditures for the year ending August 31, 1974, and a breakdown of finances by special events the same year. The amount of money spent on the men's and women's programs cannot be allocated, although most expenditures benefit the development of both programs. The NCAA was a major contributor to USGF in the past, but has been phasing out its contributions over a five-year period to end in 1979, at which time it will no longer contribute any more than membership dues.

Gymnasts now get their travel expenses reimbursed to national championships if they win awards there. This is a start toward offsetting some of the costs incurred by athletes in training and competition. Elite gymnasts spend anywhere from $5,000 to $6,000 or even $8,000 per year on coaching, clothing, travel, entry fees, etc.

USGF Statement of Cash Balance and
Cash Receipts and Disbursements
Year Ended August 31, 1974

Cash balance, September 1, 1973			$56,627
Cash receipts:			
Special events and broadcasting Rights		$ 69,279	
Printing		63,007	
Grants		27,500	
Women's Committee		11,000	
Sanction fees and membership dues		1,524	
Contributions		1,000	
Other		1,517	
Total receipts		$174,827	
Cash disbursement:			
Special events	$ 79,040		
Printing	34,074		
Administrative	108,629		
Total disbursements		$221,743	
Excess of cash disbursements over cash receipts			(46,916)
Cash balance, August 31, 1975			$ 9,711

Special Events – Year Ended August 31, 1974

	Expo '74	*Polish Tour*	*St. Louis Congress*	*Czech Tour*	*Chicago Congress*	*Chinese Tour*	*USSR Tour (Nov. '74)*	*International Trips*	*FIG Congress*	*Other*	*Total*
Cash receipts:											
Income – special events	$13,132	$11,968	$7,375	$13,769	$885	$4,809		$ 5,563		$ 1,778	$59,279
Broadcasting rights											
Total	13,132	11,968	7,375	13,769	885	4,809		5,563		11,778	59,279
Cash disbursements:											
Hotels and meals	857	247	5,952			200	685	1,178	$ 3,037	1,808	13,964
Travel	5,058	9,211	42	11,761		133	2,948	8,984	5,202	6,696	50,035
Per Diem		1,000		1,000				1,339	135	540	4,014
Printing	3,000		208								3,208
Trophies, flags, etc.	32						144				176
Miscellaneous	266		50			5,225	253	355	268	1,226	7,643
Total	9,213	10,458	6,252	12,761		5,558	4,030	11,856	8,642	10,270	79,040
Excess (deficiency) of cash receipts over cash disbursements	$ 3,919	$ 1,510	$1,123	$ 1,008	$885	$ (749)	$ (4,030)	$ (6,293)	$ (8,642)	$ 1,508	$ (9,761)

USOC contributed the following funds to the Gymnastics Games Committees during the 1973-1976 Quadrennial:

	Development	Team Preparation	Committee Expenses	Trials
Men	44,250	14,200	200	8,400
Women	50,450	24,700	1,597	12,400

Each USGF member organization spends some part of its budget on gymnastics programs and competitions. However, sources of gymnastics monies are difficult to trace because these organizations draw from their general funds for gymnastics use and do not itemize expenditures by sport or by program.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

More than one million individuals participate in gymnastics in the U. S. This participation takes a variety of forms. People of all ages participate in gymnastics as a form of exercise while others, within a more limited age range, compete in the sport. About 60,000 participants compete regularly, at least during the scholastic season. About 40 U. S. athletes are world class, all-around gymnasts (20 men and 20 women) with 65 to 70 women just below the elite level and perhaps 30 men in this category.

The most recent figures available for high school sports participation are from 1974-75. Of more than 20,000 high schools, 1,697 held interscholastic gymnastics competition for boys' (36,834 participants) while 2,835 held girls' competition (61,424 participants). Leading states in high school gymnastics participation were California, New York, Ohio and Illinois for boys, and California, Ohio, New York and Minnesota for girls. Ninety-six boys from 14 states were recognized as outstanding All-American gymnasts for the 1974-75 season. Illinois led with 26 All-Americans, followed by Colorado with 16, New York with 14, and Minnesota with 10. More than half (54.5%) were all-around gymnasts while fewer than one-third (27.3%) were one-event specialists.

Junior colleges affiliated with NJCAA are not very active in gymnastics competition. In 1975-76 only 13 of 585 schools in the men's division of NJCAA and only 25 of 294 schools in the women's division had recognized gymnastics programs.

Gymnastics at the varsity level was on the athletic program at 16 NAIA schools in 1975-76, with 160 participants. This represents a substantial decrease since 1971-72 when there were 50 active teams and 500 participants. While this figure does not include competitors or teams at the freshmen or junior varsity level, they are indicative of an overall decline in gymnastics participation.

Most recent comprehensive NCAA sport participation data is for 1971-72[4] when 124 of 663 member institutions had intercollegiate gymnastics programs for men (2,347 participants) while 126 had them for women (1,855 participants). In addition, 46 institutions sponsored intramural men's gymnastics (1,582 participants) while 59 institutions had women's intramural gymnastics programs (2,181 participants). Physical education programs in gymnastics were offered to men and women at 235 institutions. The 663 institutions reported they had 285 coaches assigned to gymnastics, approximately one for every 15 intercollegiate gymnasts. It is not known how many of these coaches are trained to teach gymnastics and how many are assigned from other specialties.

Athlete Development

USGF programs include USGF National Junior Olympics, a four-week training camp (for 14 Junior Olympics contestants), USGF Summer Development Camp, training camps for National Teams, Master Workshops for 1975, and Olympic Development Camp (men and women). In addition, USGF sponsors age group development programs for nine different age groups. These are administered through clubs and individuals affiliated with USGF. USGF provides assistance to these program administrators in the form of age group workbooks, rule books, judging guides, compulsory routines manuals, and brochures on equipment dimensions and measurements. Also, awards and certificates are provided for participants.

In 1960, U. S. senior women gymnasts numbered about 25; in 1976 there were an estimated 1,000. It has been estimated that as many as 1.25 million girls participate in gymnastics.

Since girls tend to peak earlier than boys, skill development of elite women gymnasts often creates a sociological problem not usually experienced by male gymnasts. Due to the minimal number of recognized elite class coaches in the U. S., the young athlete (perhaps as young as 13) is frequently subjected to either long daily commuting, moving away from home or having her entire family move.

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[4] NCAA conducts a survey of sports participation every five years. The 1976-77 findings are not yet available.

USGF-sponsored exhibition tours by the world's leading gymnasts and the American Cup competition (a U. S.-sponsored invitational competition for individual gymnasts) have increased interest in and understanding of the sport among the U. S. public. While USGF is to be commended for this, there are those who feel that U. S. gymnasts should also be promoted through a U. S. tour or a joint U. S./USSR tour. In addition, there is a philosophy in the gymnastics world that the whole team concept rather than the superstar concept is necessary for gymnastics development in the U. S.

Quality club programs, both coached and administered by elite coaches, typically are losing financial ventures. Development of elite gymnasts requires that athletes receive individual attention from top coaches (an approximate ratio of three gymnasts to one coach), that coaches travel with their gymnasts to meets, and that athletes train four to five hours per day, six to seven days a week.

Development of the elite levels, particularly in women's gymnastics, is hampered by a lack of communication among judges, coaches and athletes regarding criteria for awarding certain scores, interpreting compulsories, and selecting the national team.

It takes upwards of five years for a talented athlete to become world class. Average training time during that period is about two to five hours per day, six to seven days a week. Females peak anywhere from age 13 (e.g., Comaneci) to age 25 (e.g., Tourischeva), although somewhere midway between these extremes is most typical. The trend seems to be toward women peaking in their early to middle teens, when they are best able to execute difficult acrobatic moves. Men, on the other hand, peak in their late twenties. This seems to be relatively constant from year to year.

Coach Development

USGF sponsors at least two regional coaches' clinics per year in addition to symposia and an annual national congress. Since 1968 USGF also has held an annual international coaching clinic.

The National Coach concept has been effectively employed in other countries, but has not yet been fully realized in U. S. gymnastics. The role of National Coaches is to assess the range of optional exercises being performed and standardize the interpretation of FIG compulsories. The impact of these coaches on the performance of their gymnasts depends upon their being chosen early in the quadrennial. In order to avoid the appearance/fact of a conflict of interest, outside coaching activities (other than those associated with training the National Team) should be precluded and an extensive travel budget provided.

Judges Development

USGF conducts a national Judges Training and Certification program in conjunction with NAGWS. In 1974 there were 1,200 gymnastics judges certified by NAGWS but no separate national judges association. For national competitions the USGF Women's Technical Committee chose the judges, but at local levels, the coaches generally called in friends to judge meets, without any regard for training or experience.

In 1974, the National Association of Womens' Gymnastics Judges (NAWGJ) was chartered as an independent organization. It received seed money from USGF and organized from the grass roots level up. Member judges elect a state governing board and chairman; state chairmen elect regional directors who in turn elect the national NAWGJ officers (Director, Secretary, Treasurer). In 1975 NAWGJ voted to be independent of USGF, established a new constitution and organized membership drives. In 1976 there were 1,000 NAWGJ members. Membership dues are $10-$15, of which 50% goes to the state organization, 25% to the regional organization, and 25% to the national organization. NAWGJ has applied to USGF for membership and a vote on the governing council.

Since USGF won't let administrative individuals hold dual positions, many qualified judges haven't served with NAWGJ. Until recently, the USGF Women's Technical Committee controlled rules, judges, etc. WTC members all hold brevet, the highest international judging certification, yet there is only one brevet holder on the NAWGJ governing council. However, NAWGJ and WTC roles are not clearly defined. There is no reciprocal representation, nor are there written and measurable criteria for selection of judges. In theory, for competitions below the elite level, NAWGJ recommends judges subject to approval of the WTC chairman, and recommends judges for elite competition subject to approval of the USGF executive director. In practice, however, this procedure is not always followed.

U. S. judges do not receive foreign language training or cultural briefings, which has hampered their effectiveness at international meets, clinics, and meetings. In addition, procedures for selecting judges to send to international certification courses are not widely published and are held suspect by some.

A serious philosophical issue in judging involves the emphasis placed on athlete ability vs. style. The U. S. could field a weak team in international competition if, in putting together the team, U. S. judges and/or coaches emphasize a different element than do international judges. The potential for this happening can only be minimized by having good U. S. judge and coach representation at FIG technical clinics and meetings and by ensuring that the information acquired there is widely and systematically disseminated within the U. S.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

As alluded to earlier, there are rule differences between international and national programs of gymnastics. While amateur eligibility rules are identical, competitive rules differ with regard to team composition. International competition provides only for all-around gymnasts to participate; specialists (gymnasts working only on selected apparatus) may not compete at that level. In domestic competition, however, specialists may compete at all levels in all organizations with gymnastics programs except in AAU and USGF programs. While the purpose of allowing specialists to compete is to provide greater opportunities for participation, this effectively reduces incentives for an individual to train and compete in all-around. Also, many have argued that an entirely all-around program would have advantages to the gymnast of 1) greater variety and therefore greater mental and physical stimulation, 2) overall body conditioning and development, 3) increased competitive experience (six events for men and four events for women in every meet), leading to greater confidence in and execution of routines. Specialists in any event whose performances are superior to world class all-around gymnasts in the same event are exceptionally rare, although when such a specialist does surface, everyone benefits from studying his/her techniques. Those who favor at least some specialization argue that it takes many years for a gymnast to become competent in all events, so there should be competitive opportunities during the athlete's developmental years to compete in selected events and receive positive reinforcement from those experiences. In this regard, high schools permit the greatest degree of gymnast specialization with colleges and universities a close second.

FIG compulsory routines are now used by all major organizations with gymnastics programs, so there is no conflict there. The FIG Code of Points (for judges) has also been adopted by all major organizations for use at the national competitive level. Interpretations of this Code in the U. S. are sometimes at variance with interpretations in other countries despite frequent refresher courses by international representatives. Basically, the differences concern emphasis of different styles, e.g., acrobatic or dance.

Domestic Competition

There is a full range of gymnastics competion from the grass roots level up to and including national elite meets. At the local level, there is inter-club, interscholastic, and intercollegiate competition. State and regional competition occurs among clubs, among schools, and among colleges. At the national level, there are the folowing events:

- –AIAW Championships (women),
- –NCAA Championships (National and Division II, men),
- –NAIA Championships (men),
- –NJCAA Championships (men),
- –NFSHSAA Championships (men/women),
- –AAU Championships (men/women; seniors, juniors), and
- –USGF (men/women, junior, senior elite, Junior Olympics).

In some of the local and regional meets, excluding USGF and AAU meets, compulsory routines are often dropped from the competition in order to make the meet shorter and retain spectator appeal. In the past, this has contributed to the U. S. fielding international teams which perform less well in compulsory routines than in optional routines. Sponsors of dual meets also may choose to use fewer judges than FIG requirements because of the cost involved (judges are paid a standardized wage, set by the national judges' association) and the difficulty in obtaining a large number of judges.

Team Selection

In the past, selection processes for international and Olympic teams sometimes have been changed on such short notice that some athletes have complained. In the 1972 Olympic trials, for example, there was no standing provision for injury petitions. When a well known gymnast was injured during the qualification rounds, an on-the-spot decision was made to permit her coach to submit an injury petition. This was accepted and the gymnast was automatically placed on the Olympic team.

Discrepancies also exist between the men's and women's programs. For example, women gymnasts trying out for the 1976 Olympic team had to undergo two full rounds of competition in three consecutive days. This resulted in a number of injuries, particularly for the older competitors. Men, on the other hand, competed in two rounds held one month apart.

There are two major points of view regarding athlete team selection. One view holds that scores from designated competitions, either on a one-time trials or a cumulative basis, are the most effective selection method, while the other prefers selection based on coaches' or administrators' judgment. In addition, some favor trials held earlier in the Olympic year, so that the team can train together, work on compulsory routines, and polish optional routines. Allowance would have to be made, of course, for injuries that occurred before the Olympics.

International Competition

A number of international events are now held regularly in the United States. Annual events include the American Cup (an invitational meet) and tours by Russian gymnasts. During 1976, the U. S. had to qualify a team for the Olympic Games by competing with a foreign team on U. S. soil, so the Romanians travelled to the U. S.

The U. S. receives annual invitations for individuals or teams to tour and/or compete in a number of foreign countries. The South African Cup and the Chunichi Cup in Japan are just two of several such opportunities. During the quadrennial cycle, there are the Olympic Games, the World Championships two years later, and the Pan American Games one year after that.

For the 1976 Olympics the first six teams in the 1974 world championships (men and women) automatically qualified to compete. The next six teams (men and women) qualified through competing in two international meets (one on home soil and one on foreign soil which, combined, counted 40% toward the total qualifying score) and in a last-minute competition in Germany (60% toward the total qualifying score).

One of the major problems plaguing the sport on an international level, according to individuals active in gymnastics and interviewed by this Commission, is biased judging. This problem manifests itself in two ways. First, judges from Socialist bloc countries seem to score gymnasts from that bloc higher than they do gymnasts from other countries. Second, judges generally underscore gymnasts who are not well known or who are from countries not renowned in the gymnastics world, while those from recognized gymnastics powers such as Russia, Japan (men) and Romania (women) receive higher scores for the same performances. By implication, gymnasts representing countries that are not world leaders in the sport must be better than those from recognized leading countries in order to be scored the same.

One very real example of biased judging occurred in the qualifying rounds for National Teams to be eligible for 1976 Olympic competition. After the 12 countries eligible to fill the bottom six of 12 slots at the Games had completed two competitions each – one on foreign and one on home soil – the scores showed Italy and Canada, among others, to be leading the list of 12 qualifiers. In fact, those countries do not have gymnasts of a caliber to be rated nearly that high, but the judging had been seriously inflated in their meets. The FIG President immediately called all 12 qualifying nations to Germany, at their own expense, to compete in one large competition where scoring would be standardized and controlled. Those scores counted for 60% of the total scores which determined the six national entries to the Olympics.

Another example can be seen in the following table, showing the scores awarded by a panel of men's judges at the 1975 Pan American Games. Notice the large discrepancy between the Cuban judge's scores of U. S. gymnasts and his scores of Cuban gymnasts. The two "neutral" judges and the U. S. judge awarded scores to the two teams that were much closer in range, although the U. S. judge appeared to favor the U. S. team members. Each Cuban athlete received his highest score from the Cuban judge, as did each U. S. athlete from the U. S. judge. It would appear that judges tend to favor gymnasts from their own countries.

Judges		*Optionals*		*Compulsories*	
USA Gymnasts	*Head (USA)*	*1 Venezuela*	*2 Ecuador*	*3 Cuba*	*Average*
Avener	9.3	9.2	8.9	9.0	9.10
Conner	9.7	9.4	9.5	8.9	9.45
Kormann	9.4	9.2	9.3	8.9	9.25
Thomas	9.8	9.6	9.4	9.2	9.50
Tidwell	9.7	9.4	9.4	9.0	9.40
Whelan	9.7	9.5	9.3	9.2	9.40
Average	9.6	9.4	9.3	9.0	
Cuba Gymnasts					
Leon	9.5	9.4	9.4	9.6	9.45
Rodriquez	9.3	9.4	9.2	9.6	9.35
Roche	9.3	9.3	8.8	9.5	9.30
Arego	9.2	9.3	8.9	9.4	9.25
Tesedo	8.9	9.2	9.0	9.4	9.40
Cuervo	9.5	9.5	9.5	9.7	9.50
Average	9.3	9.4	9.1	9.5	

Protests may be filed with FIG's Technical Committees (men's and women's), but these committees are dominated by the Eastern bloc nations. The Technical Committees not only review protests, but assign judges, make rules and regulations, and design Compulsory Gymnastic Routines.

As judging of this sport is highly subjective, and will continue to be so long as aesthetic appearance is as important as technical precision, solutions to this problem can only come through better representation of the countries of the world on FIG committees, through adoption and enforcement of a judges code of ethics, and through more open scoring procedures. International leaders of the sport should use their influence to try to implement these changes at the international level so that the potential for years of hard work and training by gymnasts, their coaches and supporters going unrewarded because of a politically determined score is minimized.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Generally, the sport of gymnastics has made great strides in the U. S. over the past several years. The participation base has expanded in terms of numbers of athletes and coaches, as well as in terms of numbers and distribution of schools, colleges and clubs that have adopted the sport.

In general, USGF has made major accomplishments in developing U. S. gymnastics. The emergence of international superstars like Olga Korbut and Nadia Comaneci, combined with USGF's foresight in arranging for U. S. tours of the world's leading gymnasts from Russia and Romania, in establishing the annual American Cup (an international invitational destined to become a premier event in international competition), and in arranging other international exchanges have greatly increased interest in gymnastics in this country. USGF's excellent official publication, *GYMNAST* magazine, monthly features articles on psychology and the gymnast, reports from various organizations such as the U. S. Gymnastics Safety Association, and interviews with gymnasts, instructions for teaching basic movements, and other helpful and informative material to gymnasts, coaches, and judges at all levels of development. USGF has raised its financial standing so that travel to national meets is paid for elite gymnasts who are not school sponsored. Athletes in this sport stay in first class hotels, as do officials and administrators. USGF also has an annual convention, to which member coaches and officials (grass roots on up) are invited. Seminars on coaching techniques, judging, and interpretations of compulsory routines; open meetings of national USGF committees and regional USGF committees; presentations and displays by equipment and clothing manufacturers; and reports by USGF staff, officers, team coaches and judges are all part of this several day conference where ideas, techniques, information and experiences are shared.

The help of many organizations has been solicited by USGF in providing in-kind services for gymnastics activities. Equipment manufacturers in particular have been generous in sponsoring awards and trophies, meets, and in donating equipment for events or new programs.

The sport has become so popular, however, that its administration is beginning to suffer growing pains, particularly in women's gymnastics. Unlike most other sports with both men's and women's competition, the women generally draw the crowds and their meets are greater revenue producers. Also, there are significant organizational differences between the men's and women's programs in that the former is primarily school-based and supported, while the latter is supported through a network of private clubs. For a short time, the USGF women's program was managed by a part-time administrator in Chicago, while the men's program and general USGF operations were administered out of USGF's Tucson office. Several resignations in the women's program at the highest administrative levels have shaken up USGF organization somewhat. The resignations resulted from feelings that the women's program was carrying USGF but that it received little in return in the way of financing and programs, a bigger staff, a travel/expense budget for the National Women's Coach, or the opportunity to formulate its own policies and plans.

The USGF Governing Council has voted in a new women's administrator who will work in the Tucson office. This should bring closer together the men's and women's factions in gymnastics.

In addition to this move toward conciliation, there are a number of areas that will require USGF attention—as the organization itself realizes and is planning for—if it is to stay ahead of the gymnastics "boom." These include:

Organization

—More paid, professional staff are needed, to the extent permitted by funding and other priorities.

—Job descriptions for staff positions would be helpful. Right now there are different structures for the administration of the men's and women's programs. While the women have an administrator, the men do not. The roles of the women's administrator, the Executive Director, and the Assistant Executive Director are not very clear with regard to men's and women's program responsibilities;

- Committee responsibilities have not been clearly delineated. Committees have been created as required to carry out USGF business, but their roles overlap in some areas and should be reviewed;
- Long-range planning for development of the sport and adequate resources to ensure its effective implementation are needed; and
- Delegates on the Governing Council of the USGF are accountable only to the organizations that selected them for those positions, rather than directly to the membership.

Development

- Greater communication and feedback among coaches, athletes, and judges would help to ensure that an athlete's performance is constantly improving toward achievement of better scores;
- Some means of generating financial assistance for clubs should be considered, since many top clubs that produce elite gymnasts cannot also break even financially; and
- Better coordination between club and school programs would enhance development of gymnasts.

Competition

- Use by U. S. judges at elite levels of international standards and trends would help prepare U. S. gymnasts for international competition and would undoubtedly improve their placing.
- Team selection procedures should be decided upon well in advance of a qualifying meet, communicated to coaches and gymnasts, and not changed. Procedures to cover injuries, substitutions, etc., are not always established in advance, sometimes resulting in last-minute reversals; and
- Consideration should be given to reimbursing elite coaches for travel expenses in accompanying their gymnasts to meets.

ICE HOCKEY

Prior to the 1976 Winter Games in Innsbruck, the Russian ice hockey team conducted an exciting and highly publicized playing tour of the ranks of the American professional National Hockey League (NHL). The U.S. team's schedule, however, was characterized by a member of the team as, "playing no one, nowhere, and for nothing—nothing, that is, except a shot at the Gold. And that makes it worth everything." With such enthusiasm and dedication, it is no surprise that the youngest hockey team at the Olympics captured the world's attention with outstanding performances day after day and astonished everyone by almost bringing home a Bronze Medal.

Ice hockey has experienced tremendous growth throughout the world in the last 10 or 15 years. Once considered a rough winter sport for men, limited to those environs which provided natural ice surfaces, ice hockey is now played by both men and women of all ages in places from Anchorage to Atlanta. American players number in the hundreds of thousands and, although participation in the U.S. still is concentrated in the New England and Northern Mid-West states, few areas are untouched by the sport's growth.

Currently, several U.S. leagues have begun programs for women at all age levels; nevertheless, emphasis in this country is on development for male youths. Nearly 85% of the 11,000 teams registered with the Amateur Hockey Association of the United States (AHAUS) are for boys under 15 years old.

U.S. teams have made a creditable international showing for half a century but in the last 15 years our record in this arena has declined. This slip in world standing appears to be due less to a decrease in the quality of U.S. programs than to a recent emphasis on ice hockey by other countries, particularly Russia, Czechoslovakia and Sweden.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

Amateur ice hockey in the U.S. involves programs of three distinct groups—the Amateur Hockey Association of the United States (AHAUS), the secondary school system and the college and university community. All of these groups come into conflict with each other at one time or another. AHAUS is the national governing body (NGB) and forms the club system that conducts programs for almost 11,000 teams. Most AHAUS players range in age from eight to 19. High school hockey programs are sometimes coordinated with AHAUS activities but also may be governed by the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA). A player in the 13- to 18-year-old age group often has to decide which of the two programs, AHAUS or high school, to join. The duplication of activities at this level often lowers the quality of both programs. Local resources—facilities, coaches, referees, competition and athletic talent—must be shared by the clubs and high schools. Another major element is university and college competition, which takes over where most club and high school activities terminate.

The difficulties in this organizational matrix are reflected in conflicting policies and regulations. AHAUS has one set of competition and eligibility standards, the high schools frequently (depending on the state) have different and/or additional requirements, and the colleges have yet others. These dissimilar regulations are difficult to comprehend, interpret and enforce.

Another major concern associated with the U.S. amateur ice hockey program is the lack of programs for non-collegiate or post-collegiate players. A critical point in most hockey players' development comes at age 18 or 19. Further opportunities are often no longer available, and many athletes drop out of the sport altogether. AHAUS currently emphasizes programs for younger players and has few senior division teams for the post-school athlete. From AHAUS participation, an athlete can move into college-university competition. These programs are growing, but since only 140 to 150 institutions support varsity teams, the number of athletes who can continue beyond high school is small. And the number becomes smaller still once the athlete is out of college.

One option for top players coming out of AHAUS or school leagues is to join professional teams. These teams are few, however, and many highly skilled Canadian players vie for limited places on the rosters. American players rarely are able to continue in hockey at this level. Thus, even though the club system and colleges are expanding their programs, opportunities for further competition at any advanced level are limited indeed.

Events in International Competition

Major events in international amateur ice hockey are the annual World Championships and the quadrennial Winter Olympic Games. Seeding for these competitions is based on recent performances of each country's national team.

Policy changes by the International Ice Hockey Federation (IIHF) may significantly alter future championships. While the Olympics still are open only to players who qualify as amateurs under IIHF and International Olympic Committee (IOC) rules, teams in the 1976 World Championships were permitted to include professionals. Because the dates of the 1976 Championships in Poland conflicted with the schedules of the two U.S. professional leagues, no currently competing top professional players participated on the U.S. team. In 1977 the timing of the tournament should make non-amateurs available to the national team, but the question of whether professional team owners or players will risk injury for the prestige of playing remains to be answered.

History of U.S. World Ranking

Even though the Winter Olympic Games were not inaugurated until 1924, IIHF was formed in 1908 and held its first European Championships in 1910. Between 1920 and 1960 U.S. ice hockey teams generally finished in the top four in both World Championship and Olympic competition. Two exceptions in World Championship competition were an eighth place finish in 1938 and a fifth place finish in 1947 (both times in Prague, Czechoslovakia). The U.S. did not enter teams in the 1935, 1937, 1953, 1954 and 1957 World Championships.

In Olympic competition the U.S. has won one Gold (in 1960) and six Silver Medals. After 1960, U.S. performance in international competition generally declined, except for a third place finish in the 1962 World Championships and a Silver Medal in the 1972 Olympic Games in Sapporo, Japan. No U.S. team was entered in either the 1973 or 1974 World Championships, and Americans placed sixth in the 1975 World meet and fourth in the 1976 Olympics.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

AHAUS was formed in 1937 after more than a decade of changing governing bodies (the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) was in charge from 1930 to 1937). In 1947 IIHF recognized AHAUS as the national franchise holder. However, this was not satisfactory to all sports bodies involved. The U.S. Olympic Committee (USOC) continued to recognize the AAU, refusing to sanction the AHAUS team designated to represent the U.S. in the 1948 Winter Olympics (at St. Mortiz, Switzerland). However, IIHF insisted that the AHAUS team participate, and the AAU team left Switzerland without playing a single game. The AHAUS team finished fourth, and AHAUS has been the NGB of U.S. ice hockey ever since.

However, trouble in ice hockey did not disappear. To try to resolve differences between the USOC and AHAUS, an independent U.S. Ice Hockey Committee was formed, consisting of four members from each group. The committee was given full power to organize and select a team to represent the U.S. in the 1952 Olympic Games. For the 1956 Games, the U.S. Olympic Ice Hockey Club was formed in much the same way: a separate committee was organized with representatives this time from AHAUS, the NCAA and the AAU. The committee received IIHF sanction and sent a team to the 1956 Games in Italy. Since 1956, the conflict has abated. The USOC Ice Hockey Games Committee formally sanctions U.S. teams selected to represent this country under the aegis of AHAUS.

AHAUS is made up of amateur ice hockey teams organized into ten registration districts across the U.S. Each district has a Registrar, who registers the teams, and a Referee-in-Chief, who administers the officials program and registers the referees. AHAUS affairs are governed by a Board of Directors elected in the following manner:

— Each district is entitled to elect one Director and may elect two if it registers more than a thousand teams. (Five Districts have two Directors — Districts 1, 2, 6, 7 and 8.) Directors serve unlimited one-year terms;

- Each registered team in the district has one vote in elections for the district Director;
- Two Directors are elected from the professional International Hockey League;
- One Director from the Ice Rink Division and nine Directors-at-large are elected by the other Directors. Three of these at-large members are elected each year for three-year terms.

Officers elected by the Board of Directors are the President, three Vice Presidents, a Secretary and a Treasurer. All officers serve a two-year term.

AHAUS standing committees (Registrars, Finance, Development, International, Long Range Planning, Nominating, Safety and Protective Equipment and any others deemed necessary) are appointed by the President, subject to approval by the board.

The Executive Committee consists of all the officers, Chairman of the Registrars Committee, Chairman of the International Committee and Chairman of the Long-Range Planning Committee. This group is responsible for acting on behalf of the association between board meetings.

Since 1972 AHAUS has had a full-time paid Executive Director appointed by the Executive Committee to perform all general administrative duties of the association. Currently, the Executive Director has two secretarial assistants, and there is a director of public information as well. (See the organization chart on the following page.)

AHAUS objectives are:

- To foster and regulate the game of ice hockey as an amateur sport in the U.S.;
- To encourage the formation of local amateur ice hockey associations through affiliation with AHAUS;
- To affiliate with and incorporate with other international or national ice hockey organizations;
- To establish and maintain uniform tests of amateur standing and uniform playing rules for amateur ice hockey competition within its jurisdiction;
- To conduct, and assist in the conduct of local, district, regional, national and international amateur ice hockey contests and tournaments; and
- To register and sanction active amateur ice hockey leagues, clubs and players in the U.S.

AHAUS is responsible for the selection and preparation of the national team each year and also sponsors annual National Championships for the Intermediate U.S., Junior A and B, Midget, Bantam and Pee Wee classifications. In addition, AHAUS conducts a program in referee classification and some activities in the area of coaching education.

Members of AHAUS are ice hockey teams, which may be independent or part of a league. Teams that charge admission to games pay membership fees of $25 per year plus 2% of the gate revenues after taxes; others pay $10 per year. Half the team membership fee is kept by the district office for operating expenses.

AHAUS recently established an Ice Rink Division, made up of owners and/or operators of indoor ice facilities throughout the country. They pay a membership fee of $25 each and are entitled to elect one member to the Board of Directors.

Other Major Organizations

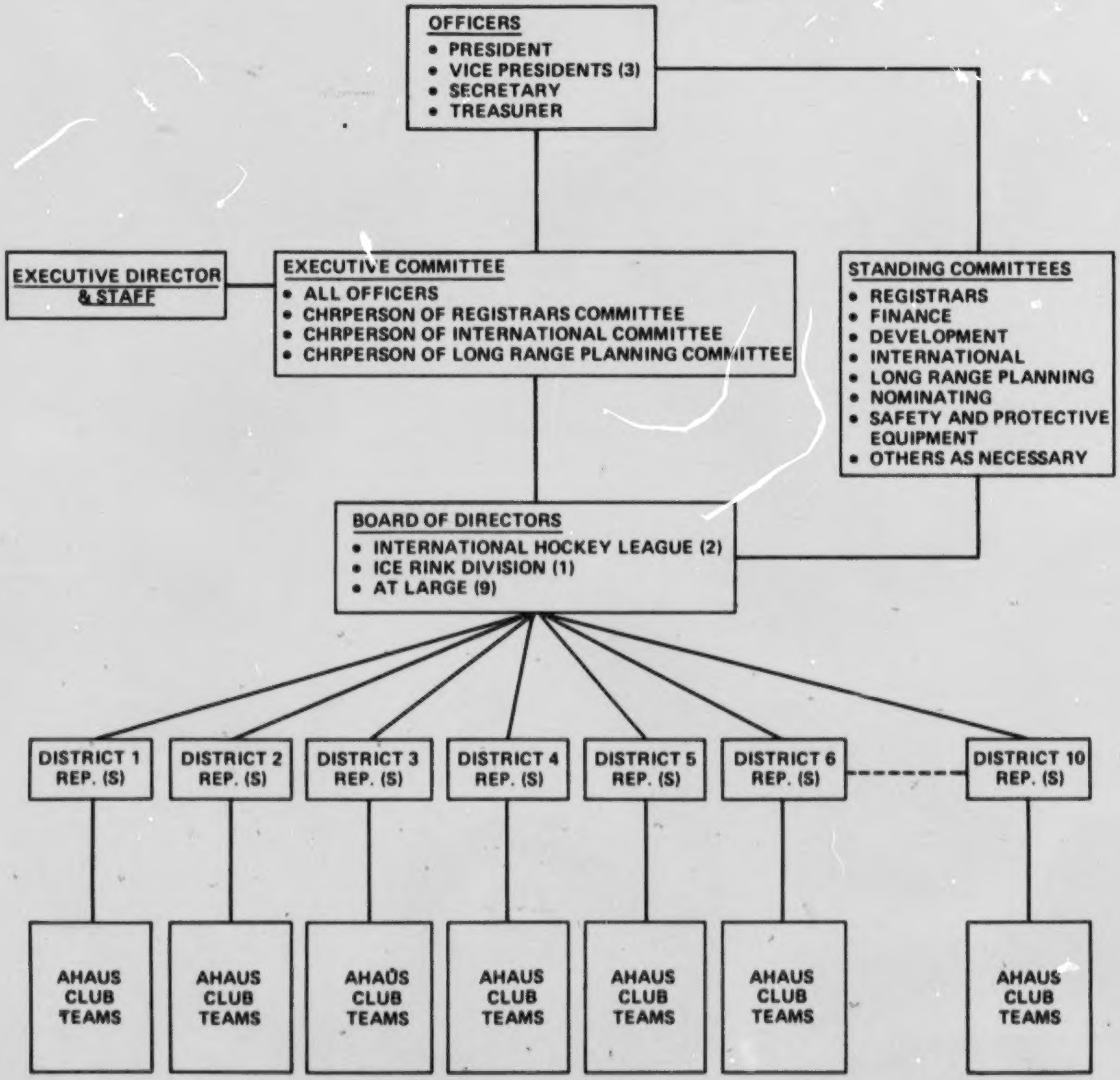
High Schools

While AHAUS has approximately 700 high school teams among its members, some 870 additional high schools conduct varsity programs in ice hockey and do not belong to AHAUS. These non-member high schools come under the jurisdiction of the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA). They generally are independent of AHAUS and have their own rules, regulations, and schedules. In places where the independent high school program co-exists with AHAUS programs, there is usually some degree of overlap. However, in many cases, AHAUS programs tend to taper off at the high school level and if an athlete does not qualify for the high school varsity team, he usually ceases to compete.

AHAUS and the high schools are not on very good terms, owing, in part, to a difference in philosophy. Club hockey is designed to develop hockey players, while high schools exist primarily to provide an education. In areas where both high school and AHAUS programs exist, athletes are forced to choose between them, partly because of scheduling conflicts, but also because many state high school associations have regulations prohibiting a high school athlete from playing on an outside team (e.g., Minnesota, Colorado, and Massachusetts). In many instances, federation rules also prohibit high school teams from joining AHAUS even though AHAUS has a high school team division for internal competition.

Also conducting significant hockey programs and existing outside the NFSHSA and AHAUS structures are the private educational institutions with intramural and varsity teams. These teams compete against each other within their own private school leagues and often have outside competition against local high schools, colleges, or AHAUS club teams as well.

AMATEUR HOCKEY ASSOCIATION OF THE U.S.
ORGANIZATION CHART


OFFICERS
• PRESIDENT
• VICE PRESIDENTS (3)
• SECRETARY
• TREASURER
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR & STAFF
EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
• ALL OFFICERS
• CHRPERSON OF REGISTRARS COMMITTEE
• CHRPERSON OF INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE
• CHRPERSON OF LONG RANGE PLANNING COMMITTEE
STANDING COMMITTEES
• REGISTRARS
• FINANCE
• DEVELOPMENT
• INTERNATIONAL
• LONG RANGE PLANNING
• NOMINATING
• SAFETY AND PROTECTIVE EQUIPMENT
• OTHERS AS NECESSARY
BOARD OF DIRECTORS
• INTERNATIONAL HOCKEY LEAGUE (2)
• ICE RINK DIVISION (1)
• AT LARGE (9)
DISTRICT 1 REP. (S)
DISTRICT 2 REP. (S)
DISTRICT 3 REP. (S)
DISTRICT 4 REP. (S)
DISTRICT 5 REP. (S)
DISTRICT 6 REP. (S)
DISTRICT 10 REP. (S)
AHAUS CLUB TEAMS
AHAUS CLUB TEAMS
AHAUS CLUB TEAMS
AHAUS CLUB TEAMS
AHAUS CLUB TEAMS
AHAUS CLUB TEAMS
AHAUS CLUB TEAMS

The private schools generally have well-supported, well-run programs—from the standpoint of both development and competition—primarily for their male students aged 12 through 18 or 19. Some conduct ice hockey programs for their female students as well.

In addition to providing opportunities for participation and competition, these institutions also make their facilities generally available to outside teams when scheduling permits, thereby contributing to the sport's exposure and promotion. Furthermore, the schools seem to be able to integrate their competitive athletic programs into those of the proximate high school and club teams with minimal conflict. Players from these schools, however, are generally precluded by their educational institutions' athletic regulations from playing on an outside team during the regular hockey season.

Colleges

U.S. colleges also conduct major programs in ice hockey. Approximately 110 National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) member colleges, primarily in three conferences, have varsity ice hockey programs: Eastern Collegiate Athletic Conference (ECAC), Central Collegiate Hockey Association (CCHA) and Western Collegiate Hockey Association (WCHA). Thirty or so National Association for Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) members have varsity programs, as do another 25 or so National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA) member colleges. The NCAA, NAIA and NJCAA are not affiliated with AHAUS since they conduct their own programs, but some college club hockey teams, which do not play in conference competition, do belong to AHAUS. Other schools conduct intramural ice hockey. The NCAA, NJCAA and NAIA all hold national ice hockey championships.

The college hockey program has become an important source of international-level players. In 1960 there were no college players on the U.S. national team. In 1972 there were two college players and by 1976, 19 of the 20 athletes on the American team had spent some time in the college hockey system.

The biggest barrier to peaceful coexistence between AHAUS and the colleges is the issue of eligibility. Certain practices permissible under AHAUS and IIHF rules are not allowed under NCAA regulations. For example, in certain areas of the country where local hockey programs (school or clubs) are inadequate for one reason or another, a hockey player may be forced to seek his competition elsewhere. Often this means leaving home to play for a civic-sponsored team in the U.S. or Canada. In order to be able to live away from home, play hockey, and attend school, the player must accept minimal financial assistance from the team if his family cannot subsidize his activities. This type of arrangement, whereby a player receives room, board and limited educational expenses from a hockey team, is not permitted by NCAA regulations. Thus, an athlete who has played in the AHAUS program before college may lose his eligibility to play in college even though he remains eligible at the international level.

Another problem is that the colleges often prohibit college players from participating on the national team. For example, WCHA, the strongest collegiate hockey league in the country, said that no WCHA player, if selected, could play on the U.S. Junior Team for the World Championships in Czechoslovakia in December 1976. This is particularly interesting since the NCAA, to which WCHA belongs, approved the competition, thus allowing players to represent their country provided they had the permission of their institution's athletic director. The other NCAA conferences, ECAC and CCHA, also indicated that available players from their associations could participate on the Junior World team without adversely affecting their collegiate eligibility. WCHA, rather than leave the decision to the individual institution, denied all hockey players under its jurisdiction permission to participate. The legal basis for the action, according to WCHA, is Article III 2C of the WCHA Articles of Agreement. However, application of this regulation is incorrect in this instance. This article refers to post-season competition, and the World Championship tournament clearly is not such a competition. The matter had not yet been resolved when this report was written.

Women's Ice Hockey

Finally, in the category of groups conducting major ice hockey programs, one must consider organizations involved in women's ice hockey. Within the last decade, girls and women have expressed strong interest in having hockey teams of their own. Several groups have responded to this demand, in particular: AHAUS, the American Girls Hockey Association (AGHA), several school teams at the high school level, the Michigan/Ontario Ladies Hockey League, and the colleges.

Several years ago, AHAUS expanded its program to provide development and competitive programs for girls. At the end of the 1975 season, 111 female teams were registered, all but nine located in the New England, New York, Michigan, and Minnesota districts.

AGHA was formed in 1972 in the Boston area. In 1975 there were almost 40 member clubs with more than 700 participants. The Michigan/Ontario Ladies Hockey League has 50 member teams, while several ice hockey teams exist outside the formal club structure and have set up their own competition. Most of these independents are located in the Boston area.

The last major group involved in women's ice hockey is the cadre of 15 to 20 East Coast colleges which compete on the intercollegiate level; more are joining the ranks each season. In 1975 the first annual Ivy League women's ice hockey tournament was held at Brown University. The tournament was attended by teams representing Brown/Pembroke, Cornell, Princeton, and Yale. U.S. women's college teams regularly travel to Canada where more than 2,000 women's teams, including collegiate teams, actively compete.

Rules in women's hockey are altered slightly to eliminate some of the physical contact allowed by the usual AHAUS playing regulations. AGHA and the Michigan/Ontario Ladies Hockey League are similar in that both permit body checking and neither has age restriction on players, so that a girl's ability and not her age determines the team she plays on. Each group suffers from underexposure and lack of money, coaching and access to facilities — all of which hamper development and elite-level programs.

RESOURCES

Personnel

Nearly all personnel involved in amateur ice hockey are volunteers. AHAUS has one paid executive director, two paid secretaries and a recently hired public relations director.

Coaching clinics are conducted within each AHAUS district, but there are currently no programs to certify ice hockey coaches. However, referees are certified and those registered with AHAUS have increased from 1,294 in 1971 to 5,744 in 1976.

Facilities/Equipment

Since indoor ice hockey facilities are expensive (averaging approximately $2 million to build and perhaps $200,000 to $225,000 per year to maintain), user fees generally are quite high. Another factor affecting the costs ultimately borne by those in the sport is the type of ownership a rink is under. Privately owned facilities are more expensive to operate than publicly owned ones because taxes, insurance, and utility rates are higher for those in the private sector. Ice rink owners cannot rely on ice hockey teams alone to support the facility, so hockey teams compete with recreational and figure skaters for ice time. Of the 1,400 to 1,800 ice rinks in the U.S. suitable for ice hockey, none are of international size (100 feet x 200 feet), perhaps because the professionals play on the smaller area. The size of the rink affects the rules and style of play as well as certain tactics and strategies in competition. U. S. players simply are not accustomed to playing on the larger international surface and they suffer accordingly. Many rinks are closing for financial reasons, and no year-round, complete training facility exists in the U.S.

Equipment can cost a player anywhere from $150 to $300 for skates, a stick, a helmet, socks, shorts, jersey and gloves. Most players also need pads and a mouthguard. Equipment for goalies runs about twice that of other players. (Jerseys are often provided to the players by the team.)

One cost estimate, for a program involving 300 boys, was nearly $5,000 for ice time (at $15 to $75 an hour) plus $10,000 to outfit the players. Travel costs and the more expensive equipment for advanced players bring the total to considerably more.

Finance

Major sources of AHAUS funding are monies received from team and referee registration fees. These amount to approximately one-third of the total annual operating budget. Most of the remaining two-thirds of AHAUS's income comes from professional hockey interests, making ice hockey one of the few amateur sports to get this sort of assistance.

In 1975-76 the National Hockey League (NHL) provided $125,000 to AHAUS: $65,000 for development programs, $40,000 for administration, $15,000 for the national team and $5,000 for the referee program. In addition, the International Hockey League (IHL), Eastern League, the U.S. League and other AHAUS-affiliated league teams provided nearly $25,000 in the form of AHAUS dues. NHL also provides funds to AHAUS for players drafted each year into NHL ranks. AHAUS disburses these funds to the team(s) which contributed to an athlete's development in the six years prior to his being drafted. NHL has offered to make similar financial arrangements with the colleges, on the condition that these funds be used only for the ice hockey programs, but to date the colleges have been unwilling to agree to earmark these monies exclusively for hockey.

AHAUS expenditures include over $100,000 in administrative costs (salaries, travel, office supplies, and equipment) and the costs associated with development programs for athletes, coaches, and officials, such as clinics, workshops, and seminars.

During the 1973-76 quadrennial, the USOC Ice Hockey Games Committee, made up of representatives from AHAUS, the colleges, and the military, gave the ice hockey program grants of $62,000 for development, $23,000 for team preparation, and $40,700 for trials and extended team training, for a total of $125,700.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

Since 1966 the number of teams registered with AHAUS has tripled; since 1971 it has doubled and is now over 10,000. There are approximately 200,000 athletes aged 8 to 18 years old in the AHAUS club system; approximately 3,000 play college varsity ice hockey, and several thousand more play intramural ice hockey.

AHAUS provides the greatest number of programs. It organizes the Mite teams for eight-year-old players, the Junior A division for 17- to 19-year-old athletes and senior level teams with no age restrictions.

Until recently, the Junior A was usually the last step before a player attempted to join the professional ranks. Colleges now are an important factor in the amateur ice hockey picture. An estimated 200 colleges, universities and junior colleges offer some sort of program in ice hockey. However, that number is still far less than the thousands of teams in existence for players from 12 to 16 years of age, and many places on these collegiate teams go to Canadian athletes.

Another factor in the hockey boom has been the effect of changes in professional hockey, especially in NHL. From the early 1940s until 1967, NHL was composed of only six teams. In 1967-68 the league doubled its size to 12 teams and two divisions. Since then, six more cities have been awarded franchises, and NHL now has two conferences with two divisions each. In addition, the World Hockey Association (WHA), begun during the 1971-72 season, has 12 teams in its two divisions and is the second major circuit in professional hockey. Increased opportunities to play beyond AHAUS and college programs are now providing more incentive to more young athletes. However, the number of professional contracts available to U.S. players has not increased as greatly as one would expect from tripling the size of one league and adding another. This is due primarily to economic factors as well as to the continued superiority of Canadian athletes.

Athlete Development

Beginning skaters need access to an ice surface for a minumum of one hour a week. Intermediate skaters require three hours a week of ice time, while the most advanced need at least one to two hours a day on the ice and at least an hour a day for off-ice training (running, weight-lifting, etc.)

Most development programs are conducted under the auspices of AHAUS. AHAUS teams provide instruction and competition and also conduct clinics. Off-season camps may be associated or affiliated with AHAUS in name, but AHAUS does not run any camps itself.

Other development programs exist in numerous independently run camps or hockey schools, most frequently associated with the names of well-known professional players such as Bobby Orr or Gordie Howe. These camps are staffed by assorted players and coaches. Costs range from $20 to $200 per week, depending upon whether it is a live-in or day camp. There is currently no procedure for certifying the quality of these programs, but they are generally considered to be quite good.

High schools offer a somewhat more limited program than AHAUS. The high school season is shorter and has fewer games. There are no national championships and no international travel. However, high school programs do exist in some parts of the country where there is no strong AHAUS program.

To a large extent, elite development of U.S. ice hockey players is taken care of by the professional ranks. Clubs and colleges prepare the athletes, while the professionals refine the talent and provide competition for players after high school or college, depending on the individual involved. In fact, to help prevent the depletion of the developmental ranks, NHL has an established practice of not pirating college or potential college players, particularly those under 18 years old. WHA, on the other hand, has no such policy.

Hockey is an expensive game to play in terms of equipment and facilities, posing a barrier to participation and development for some. This is aggravated by the lack of exposure, particularly in areas of the country where climatic conditions are less conducive to winter sports. At the elite level, development is further hampered by the expense of international travel, the lack of financial support for a national team, and the resultant lack of incentive to play for a team.

Due to the strenuous nature of the sport, research is necessary in the area of injury prevention and treatment. More effective training techniques are needed and various other physiological and psychological studies should be conducted to improve the training and development of athletes. Equipment testing and other matters concerning health and safety are of primary concern to hockey interests as well. Furthermore, the dissemination of information in all areas of sports medicine would be of great assistance to the ice hockey community.

Coaches Development

AHAUS has a program to educate coaches through manuals and other aids. Although it is moving toward certification programs similar to those it conducts for referees (see below), AHAUS has no formal training or certification programs for coaches. Most coaches are former players with little or no background in physical education, physiology, nutrition, etc.

Officials Development

The AHAUS program for referee certification includes three classifications, required examinations, and regular clinics. Classifications are Approved (beginner), Accredited (novice), and Certified (experienced). Each referee is required to complete a 150-question open-book examination every year before his/her registration application is accepted. Closed-book exams are optional and are used by some leagues.

District Referees-in-Chief and their assistants are provided with an outline in the form of flash cards on the proper procedure for conducting clinics. The cards cover the AHAUS interpretation of rules, as well as techniques and systems of officiating. Each registered referee receives an officiating manual/rule book (including comparisons between AHAUS and NCAA rules).

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

The lack of international-size rinks affects U.S. rules and style of play since the smaller skating areas lend themselves to more contact. AHAUS rules of competition are very similar to those used by the professional leagues, with some modifications for different age groups. Players must adapt for school/college and international play, but the differences are not drastic.

On the international level, IIHF recently has opened its yearly World Championship and other tournaments to both professionals and amateurs. Since there are no longer professional or amateur restrictions on who may participate on a team, the number of international competitions limited to amateurs is reduced to a single tournament held every four years: the Winter Olympics. (However, for athletes under 20 years old, the newly-established Junior World Tournament will provide an additional international-level event for amateurs only.) Availability rather than eligibility of hockey players generally is the problem in the U.S. since scheduling of the World competition may conflict with American professional league schedules.

AHAUS rules of eligibility differ from NCAA rules in some particulars. AHAUS allows players to receive minimal payment to cover some living expenses while playing top level hockey. This arrangement is permitted by international rules but not by NCAA regulations.

The relationship between the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association (CAHA) and the NCAA, like that between the NCAA and AHAUS, has been a frequent source of difficulty in amateur ice hockey. CAHA, with an approximate total of 35,000 teams, operates the 34-team Canadian Major Junior Hockey League. The latter frequently attracts the best young players in both Canada and the U.S. While playing junior hockey, the athletes attend school and, as a result of signing a standard player's contract, may receive some minor reimbursements from the club. Frequently, for example, the club will pay room, board, and book expenses, as well as a certain minimal living allowance. However, the NCAA may determine that this remuneration makes a player ineligible for future collegiate hockey even though the colleges themselves make similar payments to athletes in the form of scholarships. In fact, at present the NCAA considers the Canadian standard player's contract to be a professional agreement rendering the signer ineligible for collegiate competition.[1]

AHAUS does not prohibit an athlete from playing on a high school or college team while competing for an AHAUS club, but high schools and colleges both restrict their athletes' outside activity. For example, the NCAA and a number of state high school associations prevent outside club competition during the scholastic ice hockey season. Some college and high school rules also prevent or make it difficult for an athlete to take time off to participate on national teams.

Domestic Competition

The AHAUS season usually starts in October and goes through April with regional and national play for the following classification of players:

Senior Open: unrestricted citizenship; includes both amateurs and/or reinstated former professionals (who have been out of professional hockey at least three seasons);

Senior U.S.: restricted to U.S. citizens only, either born or naturalized with final papers; also includes amateurs and/or reinstated former professionals; and

Intermediate U.S.: restricted to U.S. citizens only, either born or naturalized with final papers; limited to amateurs, excluding reinstated former professionals.

Classifications restricted to U.S. citizens[2] and limited to amateurs according to age are: Junior (age 19)—A, B, C; Midget (age 16); Bantam (age 14); and Pee Wee (age 12). National championships are held in all of these divisions. AHAUS classes in which no national championships are conducted are Squirt (age 10) and Mite (age 8).

Two AHAUS-affiliated leagues conduct national tournaments. The International Hockey League (ten teams) contests the Senior Open class, and the U.S. Hockey League (nine teams) competes in the Intermediate U.S. class. The two professional leagues conduct independent championships in late April: NHL competes for the Stanley Cup, and WHA competes for the Avco World Trophy.

[1] NCAA statement involving NCAA hockey regulations in letter from Warren Brown of the NCAA to Paul Winnell, manager of an ice arena in Niagara Falls, Ontario, Canada.

[2] A citizen of another country is eligible if she or he holds an Alien Registration Card.

The high school ice hockey season usually begins in late November and runs through February or early March. Generally, competition is local, with state championships in some states. The college season is similar to the high school season and culminates in national tournaments for NCAA, NAIA, and NJCCA member schools.

International Competition

Regular international amateur competition includes the Olympic Games, the World Junior Championships (amateur only; 17 to 19 years olds), and the World Championships now open to both amateurs and professionals.

Teams for the Junior World and World Championships are chosen by the AHAUS selection committee. Through 1976, Olympic teams were selected by the USOC Ice Hockey Committee. AHAUS is now completely responsible for the selection of national teams.

Team members for international competition are selected on the basis of data gathered from scouts (both professional and non-professional), and personal observation by the team's coaching staff and open tryouts. The 1976 Olympic Team held open tryouts in Boston, Minneapolis and Madison. More than 300 players participated. Twenty-five candidates ultimately were selected to start training in September 1975 and begin a rigorous schedule of over 50 exhibition games against both U.S. and foreign teams.

Prior to the initiation of IIHF's new mixed competition policy in 1976, the largest single barrier to fielding the best teams was the drain of players to the professional leagues. Most of the best U.S. players turned professional after completing their Junior A eligibility (age 19). Therefore, until the initiation of the new IIHF eligibility rules of 1976 (which permit professionals to play in the World Championships), these athletes were unable to play in the World Championships. Now, as previously noted, it appears that the major obstacle to fielding the best national team will be the availability of top professional players.[3] The professional season is not designed with European competition in mind; therefore, NHL and WHA seasons may still be in progress when the World Championships are scheduled. The college schedule also may conflict, especially with the new Junior World Championship held for the first time during the 1976 Christmas holidays.

In women's ice hockey, most international exchanges have been with Canada. In April 1974, a tour was set up with women's teams from Norway, Sweden, Finland, Russia, Czechoslovakia, and West Germany. However, poor economic conditions forced many European rinks to close, transportation to Europe became more expensive, and the planned tour was cancelled. There are, however, plans to set up a tour in 1977. Currently, no U.S. National or World Championships are held for women in ice hockey, although there are indications that preparations are being made for a bid to make women's ice hockey an Olympic sport.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Effective grass-roots programs and the influence of the sport's professional interests have nearly tripled the number of Americans playing ice hockey in 1976 as compared to 1970. This rapid development is primarily due to hockey's increased media exposure (particularly of the professional activities), increased construction of facilities, effective participation and competition opportunities at the grassroots level, emphasis on coaches' and officials' training programs, and the financial support of interested groups, especially the professional National Hockey League (NHL). To keep pace with this growth, several areas need to be specifically addressed in order to ensure that sound and effective programs are conducted in the sport.

The basis for the development of ice hockey players is the opportunity to learn and practice the fundamentals of skating. Proper instruction in the sport ranks as the next priority. Other activities designed to develop and expand the participation base, as well as to provide competitive opportunities at all levels, are also of utmost importance.

Many of the needs in program implementation and support are closely connected to funding and facility requirements. NHL grants to AHAUS, the national governing body, have been of great assistance; however, additional sources of monies need to be secured, possibly through corporate sponsorships, athlete employment, contributions from equipment manufacturers, and so on.

Difficulties associated with facilities range from their non-existence to their unavailability. Natural ice surfaces are found only in the northern regions of the country for limited periods of two to six months per year. The costs of building and maintaining an ice rink are considerable, and other activities may compete with hockey for use of the facility, especially if it is designed as a multipurpose structure. Further, preferential treatment for publicly-owned facilities—in terms of lower insurance rates, lower taxes, and lower utility rates—makes it less desirable for private concerns to underwrite the construction and maintenance of rinks. This discrimination curtails the number of ice surfaces being built and the number of months the facilities are able to be open for use. A final critical point related to the facility program is the fact that no international-size rink presently exists in this country. Several must be built in order to give the U.S. players experience on the larger surface and to make it more desirable for foreign teams to come to the U. S. to play.

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[3] Except in the case of the Olympic Games. IOC Rule 26 precludes open competition; professionals are not allowed to compete in any IOC-sanctioned activities.

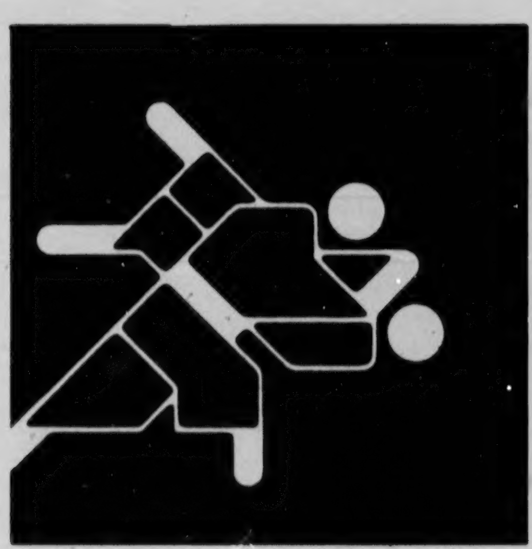
Furthermore, non-college or post-college amateur players badly need increased opportunities for participation and competition. AHAUS could be very effective in this area by emphasizing programs for these athletes as highly as it does activities for the younger age groups. NHL monies and other sponsorships could be used for the further development of junior-, intermediate- and senior-level teams. More playing opportunities for athletes 18 years old and older would provide greater incentives to attract participants to the sport and keep them involved longer. These senior teams would serve also as a natural base from which other teams would draw potential coaches and officials.

Increased support for a national team should also be considered, as it would provide motivation to remain in the sport as well as offer elite competition opportunities. To this end, funds for team preparation camps and international competition are particularly necessary.

Improved cooperation and coordination among the several organizations administering hockey programs would help to eliminate duplication of efforts as well as increase school and college hockey involvement. Further, adherence by the various groups to common eligibility regulations would likewise remove many obstacles hampering the development of athletes. Consistent with demand, women need expanded opportunities to participate at all levels and in all areas — as athletes, coaches and administrators.

Finally, consideration should be given to increased educational and training programs for coaches, officials and trainers (including parents and administrators) and to certification procedures designed to ensure the quality of hockey schools and camps. Additional research and development in the area of injury prevention and treatment, employment of more effective training techniques, adherence to safety measures and improved dissemination of sports medicine findings warrant special attention as well.

JUDO



Not making an Olympic team after half a lifetime of training, expense and sacrifice can be a painful experience. But imagine the outrage of the athlete who successfully qualifies in the Olympic Trials only to have the results thrown out and new trials held — new trials in which he fails. Such a sequence of events occurred at Temple University in 1972, at the National AAU Judo Championship, which also served as the Judo Olympic Trials.

The trials were conducted using the "Five Point" scoring system, which normally has two phases. In the first, judo athletes (*judoka*) fight in a series of matches in which the object is to avoid "bad points." This is accomplished not only by winning but by winning decisively.[1] When all but three contenders have been eliminated on points, those three fight round robin to settle first, second and third places.

Normally, if one of the three has beaten either of the other two in the first phase of competition, he does not have to fight the loser in the round robin and automatically finished ahead in the final standings. However, as the 1972 Trials opened, it was announced that the Executive Committee of the AAU Judo Committee had decided that the three finalists in each weight class would start even in the round robin regardless of the results of earlier matches. This ruling was critical because only the first-place finisher would make the Olympic team.

The change was protested by some AAU Judo Committee representatives who had not been privy to the decision, but competition commenced in spite of their petition. After two days all but three competitors in each weight class were eliminated. The finalists then were stunned by the sudden announcement that the normal trial rules — stipulating that early matches count — would be used after all in the round robin. Several finalists who had lost matches in the first phase for strategic reasons — much as track stars run only fast enough in trial heats to qualify for the finals — thus were eliminated. The Hall exploded in protests, which were finally quelled by Temple University police.

Protests were made to the USOC Games Preparation Committee, which ordered new trials. Different athletes qualified at the second trials.

The 1976 Olympic Judo Trials *again* required intervention by an outside authority to review actions by judo officials. The Selection Committee of the U. S. Olympic Judo Committee arbitrarily placed in the Open division[2] the two judoka who were our top competitors in the Open and Heavyweight Divisions in the 1975 World Championships and Pan-Am Games. This was done despite the fact that the heavyweight had always competed in the Heavyweight Division. The action ensured that only one of the men could win the Open Division in the Trials and go on to compete in the Olympics. Both men were members of the U. S. Judo Association (USJA). USJA filed a demand for arbitration with the American Arbitration Association (under USOC Constitution, Article II, Section 7) on the grounds that the Selection Committee's action had violated its own rules and thereby unreasonably interfered with the athlete's right to attempt to qualify for the Olympics, as guaranteed in the so-called "Athlete's Bill of Rights" (USOC Constitution, Article II, Section 6). Prior to arbitration, the USOC ruled in favor of USJA and placed the heavyweight in his proper division. This athlete, Alien Coage, went on to win the Bronze Medal in his division in Montreal; it was the first American medal in judo since 1964.

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[1] The Five Point system dictates that a competitor is eliminated if he receives five (or more) points. A competitor receives "0" points for winning by fall, "1" point for winning by decision, "2" points for losing a decision, and "3" points for losing by fall.

[2] Athletes of any weight may compete in the "Open" division in Judo. The division is a holdover from the time when there were no weight classes in Judo because it was believed that technique, rather than size and/or strength, was decisive to the outcome of a match. In reality, big men dominate the Open division, which, in effect, constitutes another heavyweight division.

After the Montreal Olympics, a resolution was introduced in the U.S. Olympic Judo Committee (USOJC) to commend Coage for his performance in the Games. The resolution was defeated.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

Most people in this country view the AAU/NCAA conflict as the most bitter in amateur sports. The conflict in the sport of judo is certainly as intense.

During the past seven years, the sport of judo has become extremely polarized due to a bitter organizational dispute. The dispute is so serious that one top International Judo Federation officer has described the situation as "only slightly less than catastrophic."

The antagonists are the U.S. Judo Federation (USJF) and the U.S. Judo Association (USJA); the prize is control of the National AAU Judo Committee, which exercises control of the franchise. USJF is an allied member of the AAU, and a long standing Agreement governs that alliance. As will be explained below, USJA has applied for and been accepted as an allied member of the AAU; however, the two organizations have been unable to produce an alliance of agreement acceptable to both.

The dispute has its roots in differences of philosophy, culture and technique. USJF was founded following World War II as the Judo Black Belt Federation (JBBF) by Japanese-Americans who tended to view judo as a cultural expression and an art form as well as a sport. This view, though diluted through the years, persists enough to encourage a certain resistance to change in USJF. USJA was formed in 1969 from the Armed Forces Judo Association, which was a member of USJF. USJA and its Armed Forces predecessor have always viewed judo strictly as a sport; the organization's outlook tends to be more nationalistic and less conservative than that of USJF: USJA is more willing to dispense with tradition if it interferes with success on the mat and, thus, with increasing American prestige internationally.

Focal point of the dispute is the Agreement between USJF and the AAU. In the mid-1950s and again in the mid-1960s the two groups agreed that USJF would recognize the AAU as the national governing body for judo. In return, the AAU would recognize USJF as the "sole organization . . . qualified to make belt awards for proficiency" in judo. Belt rank was originally devised as a simple means of recognizing the abilities of any judoist. While rank is not important in competition — any rank may compete against any other rank — it is important in the sport both traditionally and psychologically. Rank not only establishes a competitive hierarchy, but because rank may be awarded for "service to judo" as well as for success in competition, it establishes an administrative hierarchy as well. High ranking officials, as might be expected, not only control the sport's administration, but control the mechanisms which award rank and referee certification. While USJF also claims to be the only recognized technical body for judo in the United States and sets standards for certification of referees, belt certification (for which USJF receives a $2 fee from the competitor) is USJF's bread and butter. The AAU, in accordance with its agreement with USJF, does not recognize belt ranks awarded by USJA, even though both USJF and USJA members are registered AAU athletes.

USJF wants the AAU to reaffirm the AAU-USJF Agreement and rule that as long as USJA insists upon maintaining its own belt rank program it is in violation of the AAU Code and ineligible for AAU membership.[3] USJA, on the other hand, refuses to drop its belt rank program, has applied for AAU membership several times, and is urging the AAU to terminate the clauses in the Agreement which grant USJF the exclusive right to award belt ranks.

Although the USOC rule (Article III, Section 3, A) reads "To be recognized by the USOC as a national sports governing body, an organization shall . . . open its membership . . . to all . . . athletic organizations that are active in the sport . . . ," and although the AAU's own Allied Membership Review Board recommended unanimously that USJA's membership application be accepted, the Board of Governors overwhelmingly rejected the USJA application at the 1975 annual convention. USJA, left with no recourse under the AAU Code but to reapply, threatened to sue the AAU and USJF for conducting an illegal boycott. In response, the AAU's Board of Directors voted at the semi-annual meeting in the spring of 1976 to accept USJA membership and to direct the AAU Judo Committee to renegotiate the exclusive sections of the Agreement between the AAU and USJF. However, at the 1976 annual convention in October, the Judo Committee refused to alter the AAU-USJF Agreement; the Board of Governors accepted the USJA application for allied membership but also refused to terminate or change the old AAU-USJF Agreement.

(Note: The split between the Board of Directors, which generally represents the national leadership of the AAU, and the Board of Governors, which represents the "grass roots" level of the AAU and is the final authority within the organization, results from the fact that the Directors generally understand the liabilities of the AAU in this situation — especially in regard to USOC rules and the threatened USJA legal action — while the Governors are influenced by the politically powerful, long-time member USJF.)

[3] USJF argues that because Alliances of Agreement are a part of the AAU Code, and because the USJF-AAU Agreement recognizes USJF's sole right to award belt ranks, USJA, by awarding belt ranks, is in violation of the Code. USJF argues that USJA should only be eligible for membership when it complies with the Code by terminating its belt program.

As matters now stand, USJA is considered an allied member of the AAU, but no alliance of agreement has been signed between the two organizations because USJA refuses to sign an agreement unless it gives USJA the same rights as other allied members (e.g., USJF). USJF, on the other hand, has just had reaffirmed (by the Board of Governors' action) its exclusive right to award belt rank and is not likely to give that up voluntarily. The AAU (and USJF) may expect to be sued by USJA under anti-trust laws if the present situation does not change; the AAU also expects to be sued by USJF if the AAU-USJF Agreement is repudiated without the required 18 months' notice.

The organizational dispute continually drains the resources of the sport and detrimentally affects efforts toward effective fund raising and promotion. Lack of funds has affected everything from developmental programs to U.S. performance in international competition. U.S. athletes get little top level competition nationally or internationally, and few official efforts are made to review the experiences of national team athletes or to scout other nations' top competitors.

Because the organizations involved with judo have not been able to deal effectively with the basic requirements of the sport, judo has not been able to overcome the problems which plague the so-called "minor" sports such as lack of publicity, lack of strong coaching programs, and failure to be adopted by high school and college sport programs.

Events in International Competition

Judo is a contact sport in which two contestants attempt to demonstrate superiority through the use of throwing and grappling techniques. A match takes place on a mat of prescribed size which allows each competitor to fall or be thrown without fear of injury. Three officials are present on the mat: a referee and two judges. The two judges sit on opposite corners of the square contest area; the referee moves about on the mat and closely supervises the match. The contest begins at a signal from the referee, and continues for a length of time determined by the type of competition. (For example, in Olympic competition, preliminary matches are six minutes long, semi-finals eight, and finals ten.) All points or penalties awarded during the match, and the final judgment of the winner of the match, must be made by a majority of the three officials present on the mat.

Two types of competition take place in the U.S., *Shiai* and *Kata*. *Kata* is a non-combative style of judo, stressing form, in which judoists compete in teams of two and are judged against other teams for their execution of various techniques. *Shiai* is the combative, Olympic style of judo which is used in international competition. For the purposes of this study, discussion of rules and selection procedures apply to *Shiai*, while more general discussions of the sport of judo apply to *Shiai* and *Kata* together.

Victory (in *Shiai* competition) is awarded when one contestant scores a "full point" over his opponent, or by decision of the officials upon completion of the time limit of the match. A "full point" is scored when:

—one contestant throws the other with great force on his back;

—one contestant is assessed a contest-losing penalty;

—one contestant holds the other on his back for thirty seconds;

—one contestant submits by tapping the mat with his hand;

—one contestant is choked to the point of submission, in the opinion of the officials.

A "full point" also may be scored when one contestant is awarded two "half points." A "half point" is awarded to a contestant for noteworthy performance (as above) which does not quite merit an award of "full point."

Both men's and women's competitions take place in the U.S., Canada, Europe and Oceania (New Zealand and Australia). However, because most member countries of the International Judo Federation (IJF) do not sponsor women's competition, only men's events have been included so far in the World Championships and the Olympic and Pan American Games. The list below shows weight classes within which international competition for men and women (such as exists) takes place. Each nation fields one competitor in each category except in the World Championships, when two athletes per weight class are allowed.

	Men	*Women*[4]
Lightweight	139 lbs	105 lbs
Welterweight	154	120
Middleweight	176	135
Light-heavyweight	205	150
Heavyweight	205+	165
Open	Open	Open

History of World Ranking

Judo first became an Olympic sport at the Tokyo Games in 1964. It was not included in the 1968 Mexico Games, but was reinstated in Munich in 1972. The United States has taken Bronze medals in both 1964 and 1976 Olympic Games and in the 1965 World Championships. In most other years, the U.S. has not performed well. In 1975, judging by its performance at the World Championships in Vienna, the U.S. team ranked approximately twentieth in the world. Because of this, the performance of the Olympic team in 1976 was unexpected. By winning the Bronze medal the U.S. tied for eighth in the world (with seven other countries). However, this ranking was probably more the result of the outstanding individual performance of Allen Coage, than of general team performance.

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[4] These are the weight classes listed in the "AAU Official Rules 1974-75 (Judo)." However, there is no real uniformity either in this country or abroad, concerning weight classes for women's competition. For instance, in the 1975 Senior Nationals, women competed in eight weight classes; the same was true of the 1975 and 1976 British Open International Championships for Women. The IJF has yet to make a definitive ruling on the matter.

As might be expected, Japan dominates international men's judo competitions. In recent years, however, she has faced an increasingly strong challenge from the Soviet Union and other European countries.

Judo was first included in the Pan Am Games in 1963. Twenty-three countries are members of the Pan American Judo Union (PJU) and are therefore eligible to compete in judo in the Pan Am Games. U.S. performance in this arena has been very successful. (See below.) The most competitive judo teams are fielded by the USA, Canada, Cuba, Brazil, and Mexico.

Pan-American Games

Year	*Team/ Place*	*Gold*	*Silver*	*Bronze*	*Events*
1963	first	3	1	—	4
1967	first	2	2	2	6
1971	Judo not included				
1975	Tie for second	1	1	3	6

U.S. women are among the best in the world. The British Open International Championships for Women is the only major, regularly scheduled international competition which is open to women from all nations. In 1975, the first year of the tournament, U.S. women placed second. In 1976, they took first place. In both years, this success came despite the fact that the women athletes who attended did so largely with their own funds or with funds they raised. The top competition in women's judo currently comes from the USA, Great Britain, Canada, Holland, and West Germany. Such powers in men's judo as the Soviet Union and Japan have not yet fielded teams in women's judo.

U.S. Women's Performance:
British Open International Championships for Women

Year	*Team/ Place*	*Gold*	*Silver*	*Bronze*	*Events*
1975	Second	3	1	—	8
1976	First	2	4	4	8

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The AAU has been the NGB for judo since 1955. At that time it established its international relations with the Pan American Judo Union (PJU) and became a member of the International Judo Federation (IJF), and it also reached the agreement discussed above with USJF (then the Judo Black Belt Federation) which controlled domestic competition.

Because the AAU national organization has found it necessary to become involved in judo's organizational dispute, the Judo Committee leadership (which is generally affiliated with USJF) has lately become increasingly sensitive to the national organization's interference. The Committee exercises control over such matters as sanctioning international exchanges, arranging for competitions involving the national team, etc., and is even able, in the short run, to ignore the wishes of the national organization (as in the Committee's defiance of the Board of Director's directive to renegotiate the AAU-USJF Agreement). Nevertheless, the Committee remains under the authority of the AAU Code, and, through the Code, the Board of Governors and Board of Directors. As USJF becomes more dissatisfied with the relationship between the Judo Committee and the AAU's national organization, the possibility increases that USJF may decide to challenge the AAU for the franchise. Because USJF members occupy all key positions held by Americans in the PJU and IJF, the possibility is a real one.

The Judo Committee meets twice yearly, once at the AAU's Annual Convention and again in conjunction with the AAU National Judo Championships. All members of the Judo Committee are active participants in judo programs; most (approximately 70%) of these representatives are elected to the Committee by the regional AAU associations (which are allowed one or two representatives each, depending upon the number of registered athletes within the association.) Also on the Committee are representatives from each active Allied member,[5] one representative from each of the Armed Services with an active judo program (i.e., USAF, USA, USN), and from four to ten athlete representatives elected by the athletes. In addition, the AAU President may appoint up to five delegates-at-large to the Committee, and for every ten regular committee members the Committee Chairman may appoint one delegate-at-large and the committee may elect one delegate-at-large. Most Committee members are also members of either USJF or USJA, or both. USJF members are (and historically have been) in the majority on the committee, often due to the power of the Chair to appoint at-large delegates.

Although made up entirely of volunteers, the Judo Committee has access to the part-time services of an administrator and secretarial staff through the AAU national organization.

The officers of the Judo Committee include a

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[5] Allied members with a vote in the Judo Committee include the CYO, DeMolay, NJWB, USJA, USJF, and YMCA.

Women's Chairman, who chairs a sub-committee which serves as the central focus for women's judo in the United States. The sub-committee considers issues important to women judoists (rules, policy, events, etc.) and makes recommendations on these issues to the Judo Committee. The Committee has generally been responsive to these recommendations. Other sub-committees handle such business as scheduling, sanctioning international and domestic competitions, arranging tournaments, analyzing rules, etc.

The AAU conducts competitive sport programs in judo similar to those it conducts in other sports, sponsoring regional and national competitions for seniors and juniors, men and women. In addition, the AAU occasionally sponsors travel for a "national team" competition.

The national AAU Judo Committee is badly split by factionalism between USJA and USJF. Voting on matters before the Committee is quite often along organizational lines. However, even though women also belong to USJA or USJF or both, this factionalism normally disappears when recommendations from the women's subcommittee are put before the general Committee (probably because both sides are unwilling to alienate the women). Interestingly, therefore, the Judo Committee serves as a forum for rational discussion and decision-making and is an effective administrative organ in matters dealing with women's judo, while for men's judo it remains an arena for the display of organizational loyalty and power.

Other Major Organizations

The U.S. Judo Federation was established after World War II to promote judo and maintain the sport's standards. In 1955, when the AAU-USJF Agreement was signed, USJF consisted of a union of four regional "Black Belt" associations. Today, the organization is composed of 31 Black Belt associations across the country.

USJF is a national federation composed of regional associations of clubs. Representatives of clubs in a regional Black Belt association elect from among their number an executive committee headed by a President. In turn, the regional associations send representatives to serve on the National Board of Directors, which elects an executive committee and President from among its members.

At each level of organization, national and regional, examining committees are established to deal with the problems of maintenance of standards (rank) and the promotion of officials.

Major programs sponsored by USJF include national rank registration and officials certification programs, publication of a judo handbook, publication of a high school judo handbook, maintenance of coaching standards through a national teacher's institute, and occasional funding of international tours. Rank registration is the most crucial USJF program. In order to receive official (AAU recognized) rank an athlete pays a $5.00 annual membership fee plus a $2 or $3 (depending on rank) rank registration fee. Because the AAU recognizes only the rank certified by the USJF, USJF enjoys a virtual monopoly and is able to support its activities through this program.

Also noteworthy is the fact that all U. S. referees currently certified at the continental and international level have come from the USJF program. This is not financially important to USJF, but the fact that USJF has been successful in producing world class referees whose expertise has been available to others in the United States has undoubtedly been of positive value to the sport.

The U.S. Judo Association is a relatively new organization, but the people involved in it have been active in the sport for many years. USJA was formed from the Armed Forces Judo Association which, until 1969, had been a Black Belt association within USJF. The reasons for the break were both organizational and philosophical. The Armed Forces Judo Association was not bounded by a particular geographical region as were all the other Black Belt Associations. AFJA members leaving the service were forced to join the local Black Belt Associations because USJF prohibited AFJA from having civilian members despite the fact that judoka trained by AFJA had a certain community of interest with other AFJA members. In addition, AFJA members tended to view judo as strictly sport, rather than as a culture. Finally, AFJA was growing so rapidly that, at the time of the split, it constituted approximately one-third of the USJF membership. USJA currently claims approximately 19,000 individual members, a large percentage of the nationally registered *judoka*.

A national organization with no regional sub-organizations, USJA consists of an Executive Director appointed by a Board of Directors elected by mail ballot of the general membership. Its major program consists of raising funds for a national training center. More than $150,000 had been set aside for this purpose as of October 1975. USJA publishes a bi-monthly training and informational newspaper which is sent to each member. It also occasionally provides funds for international tours of competition. At least $10,000 set aside in fiscal 1975 for USJA programs went for legal services.

The USJA maintains a national competitive structure for juniors (boys and girls) and sponsers an annual national *kata* championship.

A national competitive structure is maintained for collegiate-level *judoka* by the National Collegiate Judo Association (NCJA). This fledgling organization sponsors regional and national competitions among varsity and school-associated club teams. NCJA has applied for NCAA membership, but the application has not yet been accepted. The AAU has attempted to aid the development of NCJA by offering certain incentives to participants of the 1976 NCJA championships. For example, the first place winners of the NCJA championships represented the United States in the Pan American Judo Union Championships in Venezuela and also were eligible for the Olympic Trials.

Relationship with International Federation

International judo is controlled by the International Judo Federation (IJF). the IJF is subdivided into five continental unions, each of which controls competition within the continent for which it is responsible. For purposes of this continental subdivision, North and South America are considered one continent. The continental unions are:

African Judo Union,
Asian Judo Union,
European Judo Union,
Oceania Judo Union, and
Pan American Judo Union (PJU).

Each country may be represented in its Continental Union by only one national federation. If two or more organizations within a country claim representation, it will be given to the one recognized by its National Olympic Committee (if there is an NOC in that country). If the NOC does not recognize any organization, preference will be given to the organization which is recognized by the Continental Union.

AAU representatives, (all of whom are also members of USJF) maintain cordial relationships with both the IJF and PJU. Americans currently head the IJF Refereeing and Medical subcommittees and also hold office as Vice President and Technical Director of the PJU.

Recently, U.S. and Canadian NGB representatives have been attempting to induce the PJU to include women's competition in the continental championships. This effort appears to be headed for success — the first women's PJU Championship is tentatively scheduled for the spring of 1977.

(Note: IJF President, Charles Palmer, has stated publicly that the IJF will sponsor World Championships and attempt to sponsor Olympic competition for women as soon as three of the five continental unions have included women in official competition. Presently, both the European and Oceania Judo Unions have sponsored such competition. Since the African and Asian Judo Unions seem unlikely to do so, persuading the PJU to sponsor women's competition is crucial to the effort to include women *judoka* in the Olympics).

RESOURCES

Personnel

The general breakdown of administrative personnel available to judo is as follows:

The AAU has a 102-member National Judo Committee (volunteer); 58 regional associations each with president, secretary and registration chairman (volunteer); and a national office with part-time administrator and secretarial staff (paid).

The USJF has a seven-member Board of Directors (volunteer) and 31 regional Black Belt associations each with president and registration chairman (volunteer).

The USJA has a nine-member Board of Directors (volunteer) and a national office with executive director and secretarial services (paid.)

The USOC has a 21-member U.S. Olympic Judo Committee (volunteer), all of whom are members of AAU National Judo Committee. During the 1977-1980 quadrennial, the responsibility for preparation of the judo Olympic team will rest with the AAU Judo Committee.

The professional side of the sport is not well developed. Small commercial clubs do exist, but the best-paying coaching positions are those found through the schools, and most non-school coaches teach on a volunteer basis.

Facilities/Equipment

Because judo is an indoor sport which needs little space, any type of facility, from a gym to a large room, may be used to house judo competition. The competition itself takes place on matting designed to prevent injury to the contestants. Wrestling mats are often used as standard equipment, although competitors who fight on wrestling mats are prone to foot injuries. Because of the force with which competitors throw one another during a judo contest, the ideal arena for the contest is matting on a raised platform with plenty of give (for instance, plywood resting on tires, or springs, etc.). The facilities and equipment necessary for judo contests are generally available throughout the educational system. Competitors not associated with schools may have more difficulty finding facilities and equipment, but requirements of the sport are minimal enough that the availability of facilities and equipment is not normally a problem.

Costs to Participants

The *gi*[*] worn during competition costs $20-40. Except for this, expenses for coaches, athletes and officials are essentially identical. The single major cost for all three groups is transportation. It is particularly important that a world class competitor get the level of competition necessary to maintain his/her skills; and in judo that requires travel. Precise costs are difficult to determine because of variations in travel requirements but it is clear that many world class athletes are unable to afford sufficient competition-related travel. In addition to the travel costs noted above, the potential income lost to the adult athlete because of time spent in training and competition is an expense that many find prohibitive.

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[*] A traditional jacket-like garment tied with a belt. The *gi* is used by each competitor to get a grip on an opponent to facilitate throws.

Finance/Funding

None of the national organizations active in judo programs is thought to be in serious financial difficulty. However, as indicated above, the continuing organizational dispute diverts many resources which would otherwise be available for development and competition. Each of the organizations supports itself through athlete registration. Each athlete who registers as an AAU competitor through a member club pays a $2 membership fee, of which $1 goes to the regional AAU organization and $1 goes to the national AAU Organization. Of the $1 that goes to the national AAU organization, 50¢ is returned to the sport fund for judo.[7] Approximately 20,000 judoists registered with the AAU in 1975, making approximately $10,000 available to the judo fund. Additionally, the AAU supplied approximately $10,000 from unappropriated funds for administration of the sport. The aforementioned dues are the major sources of income to the AAU from judo.

Approximately $65,000 was received by USJF in fiscal 1975 from membership dues, rank registrations, promotional fees, paid by some 12,000 members. Other minor sources of USJF income include dues from the regional black belt associations, proceeds from the sale of USJF handbooks, and individual life membership fees. These other sources generated approximately $5,000 in fiscal 1975.

The USJA claims approximately 16,000 "senior" (over 16) members whose annual $5 membership fees provide the bulk of the USJA's annual income.

The organizations involved in judo spent approximately $100,000 on the sport in fiscal 1975. General fund uses were:

—AAU funds available to the sport have been used during the past two years to help send teams to international competitions, including the 1975 World Championships in Vienna, and the 1976 Pan American Judo Union Championships in Venezuela.

—USJF used its funds to continue development of a computerized rank registration system, for the development of a new publication called *Judo USA*, and for reimbursements to officers for various organization-related expenses.

—USJA's major expenses were for personnel costs related to the operation of its national office in Bossier City, Louisiana, and the publication of its magazine, *American Judo*, which is distributed to all members. The major extra-administrative expense for 1975 covered legal fees incurred in the attempt to gain membership to the AAU.

During the 1973-1976 quadrennial, the USOC contributed approximately $6,000 per year from development funds to the sport. These monies were used for transportation (to World Championships) and for training camps used to prepare athletes for the Pan Am and Olympic Games.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

Organizations active in U. S. judo claim that approximately 100,000 people participate in the sport. There is no way to verify this number, and it is probably inflated. Active members in the three organizations number about 50,000 but because many belong to more than one organization it is difficult to assess the accuracy of even this figure. Since many judo athletes who compete regularly register with the AAU, the 22,000 athletes (17% women, 83% men) registered with the AAU in 1975 probably represent the majority of active competitors. USJA showed approximately 19,000 members in 1975 (same ratio of men to women as in AAU figures), and USJF claimed approximately 12,000. (Note: USJA/USJF membership also overlaps considerably despite the conflict between the two organizations).

Athlete Development

The basic unit of organization in judo is the *dojo* (club) which may be a member of the AAU structure or may be unaffiliated. Club members may belong to either, both or neither USJF or USJA. Although both these organizations and the AAU are involved in national competitions, grass roots development is left largely to the clubs and regional organizations.

The main barrier to participation for athletes is the cost of transportation. Barriers based on age, sex, race, etc., have become less important in the last five years. During this time the AAU has begun sponsoring national women's *shiai* competition.

Coaches Development

There is no national standard for training and developing coaches; generally, any athlete with a belt rank higher than his student is qualified to teach. This system is most workable when there is one national standardized ranking system. However, such a system no longer exists and ranking is no longer an effective method of teacher certification. Competitors who have attained high belt ranks are not necessarily trained in physical education, physiology, or other related fields important to good coaching.

Officials Development

Officials are certified, under IJF rules, by the national governing body in each country, by the Continental Union for continental competition, or by the IJF itself for international competition. Five rankings exist for officials: local, regional, national, continental and international. Claiming status as the “only recognized technical body for judo”[8] in the U.S., USJF has assumed the task of publishing standards and examining applicants for referee certification. Although it is not an IJF or PJU requirement, USJF referee requirements include minimum USJF recognized belt ranks. Testing is required before an individual may rise to the next level and an official must be re-tested at least once every three years to maintain his certification. Officials also may be reduced in rank for poor performance during an event. All U.S. officials of international caliber (of which there are 10 Americans out of a world-wide total of 50) are members of the USJF. The same standards apply to both men and women officials.

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[7] This 50¢ return to the individual sport fund is a relatively new development; until two years ago no money was returned to judo.

The USJA has its own referee certification programs, but these are not recognized by the AAU.

(Note: Because administrators control the belt rank and referee certification mechanisms in judo, athletes and aspiring officials frequently express fear that they are vulnerable to reprisals—on the mat, and in belt and officials' certification tests—for actions disapproved of by judo administrators.)

Much of this distrust could be alleviated if the organizational dispute were resolved and the administration of the sport were separated from the duties of refereeing matches and certifying belt ranks and officials' credentials.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

Rules of competition used by domestic organizations do not differ significantly from those used by the IJF. Although the IJF does not officially sponsor women's competition, U.S. women *judoka* essentially follow the IJF rules governing men's competition.

Domestic Competition

Significant events each year are as follows:

—AAU regional and national tournaments for juniors and seniors, both men and women;

—NCJA regional and national tournaments for men; and

—USJA national tournaments for junior (*shiai*) and senior (*kata*) men and women.

International Competition

Participation in significant international competition is controlled by the AAU and/or its representatives on the U. S. Olympic Judo Committee.[9] Selection processes for the various events differ considerably as indicated below:

Event: British Open International Championship (annual)
Eligible: Women only
Selection: Any competitor able to attend the event is eligible to compete.
Events: World Championships (every two years), Pan American Judo Union Championships (annual)
Eligible: Men only (in the past)
Selection: Determined by AAU Judo Committee. U.S. team for the 1975 World Championships was selected at trials for Pan Am Games; 1976 PJU Championships was attended by NCJA champions.
Events: Olympic Games and Pan American Games (every four years)
Eligible: Men only
Selection: One judoist in each weight class is selected. This athlete is chosen during the Trials, which consist of competition among the invited top six or seven judoists in each weight class. Invitations are extended to:
— first four finishers at the National AAU Judo Championships;
— first place finisher from National Collegiate Judo Championships; and
— top high school competitor in each weight class.

In addition, the selection committee of the U.S. Olympic Judo Committee could invite a “wild card” —one competitor in each weigh class considered to be of international caliber but who did not make the trials through the other methods of selection.

The Olympic trials themselves consist of a round-robin fight among the competitors in each weight class. The competitors fight one another until one athlete has beaten all of the other contestants in a row. It is felt that this method of selection tests not only skill but endurance.

Coach selection for national teams has been the responsibility of the U. S. Olympic Judo Committee and is made from a list of eligible coaches maintained by the AAU Judo Committee. Because the standards for placing a coach on the list have not been published, charges have been leveled that the list is used as a means of making political payoffs. Because none of the top U. S. Olympic contenders who have become coaches have been selected to coach the national team, and because athletes have voiced extreme displeasure with the performance of some recent national team coaches, these charges will continue to be made until the procedures are changed or publicly clarified.

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[8] “Foreword,” *Official Judo Handbook*, 1st ed., United States Judo Federation, Inc., 1974, pp. iii.

[9] The USOJC was responsible for preparing the U.S. Olympic Judo team for the 1976 Olympic Games. This responsibility will fall to the AAU Judo Committe during the 1977-1980 quadrennial.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The problems which affect judo in the United States fall into three broad categories. They are 1) the continuing organizational disputes, which include those between USJF and USJA, and those between athletes and organizations; 2) the general lack of funds, which especially affects our ability to maintain a pool of world caliber athletes and to provide them with the competition they need to improve their skills; and 3) the lack of effective promotion, which has resulted in judo's failure to generate enough public interest to ensure its widespread adoption by the educational community. However, the solution of other problems facing judo requires the attention of an effective, smoothly-functioning sport administration; this is in turn dependent upon a resolution of judo's organizational difficulties.

The continuing organizational dispute between USJF and USJA drains needed resources, encourages arbitrary and politically motivated actions, and generally increases distrust among administrators, officials and athletes. Because the dispute centers around the belt rank issue, it is most important that this issue be addressed. Two possible options the NGB has for dealing with the issue are as follows: 1) the AAU might assume for itself the sole authority to issue rank, or, 2) it could declare that rank has no particular importance to the sport and that all organizations have an equal right to award belt ranks. If the AAU chooses the former course, it may decide to establish national standards governing belt ranks and license existing organizations to award rank accordingly. If it chooses the latter, then rank cannot be used as the basis for making decisions pertaining to the sport (i.e., coach selection, referee certification, etc.). In either case, it appears to be untenable for the AAU to continue to maintain a special relationship with one member organization and not another. All member organizations have the right to equal treatment. The AAU has so far been unable to effectively deal with the belt rank issue. Resolution of the dispute, therefore, seems to await action by an outside party.

As evidenced by the vignettes at the beginning of this report major disputes between athletes and administrators occur all too frequently in judo. In connection with the narrow range of matters which pertain to the Olympic Games, the USOC has been able effectively to adjudicate these disputes; however, USOC jurisdiction is limited, and the USOC is generally reluctant to interfere with the activities of the national governing bodies. Somebody with wider jurisdiction and authority will be necessary to address these kinds of problems as well.

If the problems associated with awarding belt ranks are solved, the most significant reason for current organizational in-fighting will have been removed. An end to the organizational disputes will result in a measurable increase in the discretionary resources available to the sport, and the sport's leaders will be better able to address the range of problems and challenges facing judo. Satisfactory resolution also would allow the NGB to act with greater assurance and authority in activities required of the NGB (coach selection, selection of athletes for national teams, etc.).

Women's judo to date has been the sole beneficiary of judo's organizational dispute. Both sides seem unwilling to lose the support of women and have therefore generally supported the women's cause. The women themselves seem less concerned by organizational goals than by the goals of women's judo. The initial successes scored by the women's program should continue if the women can maintain their unity of purpose and avoid deep involvement in the judo dispute.

LUGE

Immediately prior to the start of the 1976 Winter Games in Innsbruck, *Sports Illustrated* published an article about the U.S. Olympic luge team. In the article, author Bill Johnson described the sport and detailed the overwhelming problems faced by luge team members in their attempt to compete successfully with the Europeans in the Olympic luge events. For the title of the piece, Johnson chose "Some Win and Some Luge." The use of luge as a synonym for lose accurately describes the condition of the sport in the U.S. today.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

The current state of luge is attributable to two facts. First, luge was introduced in the U.S. only recently; it was taken up by Americans only after it was added to the 1964 Olympic Games. Second, luge in its Olympic form requires large expenditures of money to produce the facilities and equipment necessary for adequate training and/or competitive programs. The sport has neither received the grants needed to make essential programs possible, nor has it been practiced here long enough to generate the public interest and effective administration which would make it possible for the sport to raise its own funds.

As a result:

- —Luge lacks participants. Fewer than 50 people in this country compete actively;
- —Luge has no facilities. Although several luge tracks have been built in various places in the U.S. in the past 10 years, none of these is currently in operation. The bobsled run at Mt. Van Hoevenberg at Lake Placid is the only operating facility in the U.S. which bears a resemblance to a luge track, but this run can be dangerous to lugers and often is not available to them;
- —Participants in the sport lack the experience and technical expertise of their European counterparts;
- —Luge lacks the publicity necessary to sustain successful programs; and
- —Luge lacks effective administration. Very little communication takes place between athletes and administrators.

Sport Description

Lugers race small sleds down defined, curving tracks at speeds of up to eighty miles per hour. Sleds may have either runners or rollers, depending upon the surface on which the competition takes place. The luger lies on his/her back on the sled and steers with his/her feet by exerting pressure on the runners.

A track may consist of no more than a curving mountain road down which competitors race on their wheeled sleds. All-weather tracks made entirely of plastic also have been constructed. Olympic competition, however, takes place on artificial, walled tracks covered with a carefully prepared surface of snow and ice.

Events in International Competition

The premier world event in luge takes place during the Winter Olympic Games. In addition, a world championship is held each year in Europe.

Events consist of races in the one and two-man luge; men and women compete in separate events.

Each nation may enter three men and three women in the singles events, and four men in the doubles event. There is no doubles event for women. Winners in the singles event are determined by the best cumulative times over four heats; the doubles event consists of two runs. One heat must be conducted at night, if lights are available.

The Federation Internationale de Luge de Course (FIL) sanctions and sets rules for competition on all the different types of luge tracks. Championships are sponsored in each category of competition (natural and artificial tracks).

History of World Rank

In 1975, FIL listed twenty-three countries as members. United States teams consistently have ranked close to the bottom of this list in Olympic competition, as indicated by the chart below.

Year	Event	Finishes	Number of Competitors
1964	Men Singles	13,17,22,29	36
	Women Singles	Withdrawn (injury)	
	Men Doubles	13	13
1968	Men Singles	26,28,30,46	50
	Women Singles	14,16,17	21
	Men Doubles	No Entry	
1972	Men Singles	28,31,32,46	50
	Women Singles	15	23
	Men Doubles	15,17	20
1976	Men Singles	29,30,32	41
	Women Singles	21,24,25	26
	Men Doubles	23,24	25

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The National AAU Luge Committee has had the U.S. franchise since luge became an Olympic event in 1964. The committee is structured according to rules in the AAU Code which govern all sports committees. Few of the 36 regional representatives to the Luge Committee ever have competed actively in the sport, however, and attendance at the annual and semi-annual committee meetings is poor.

The AAU attempts to provide the same competitive structure for luge that it provides for other sports: that is, a senior national championship and a junior Olympic program. However, since so few people compete in luge, and since scheduling luge competitions at Mt. Van Hoevenberg is subject to uncertainties, the nationals draw only a few competitors, and the junior Olympic program in the past essentially has been limited to juniors in the Lake Placid area.

The Luge Committee faces a serious problem in its attempt to represent and promote the sport. Because the population base of the sport is so small (only 36 athletes registered with the AAU in 1975) and is spread over a wide geographical area, there are few clubs either composed of lugers, or including lugers as members. Since clubs form the basis of the AAU organizational structure and lugers in this country are largely unaffiliated with local sporting organizations, there is no formal organizational link between athletes and administration. Thus, in effect, the athletes—who are most familiar with and committed to the sport—are prevented from participating as administrators. Instead, the sport's administration is carried out by committee members with little or no competitive experience in luge who are interested only in sports in general. Active competitors have no effective representation or voice on the Luge Committee.

To date, efforts by the Luge Committee to raise funds and implement developmental programs have been unsuccessful. The committee has plans to develop a training package for competition in luge (and bobsled) starts, and to market the package to cities and educational institutions, but as of this writing the idea has not gone beyond the planning stage. (The package would consist of several luge and bob-type training sleds and blueprints for construction of a starting ramp 25-50m long. The committee hopes municipalities, recreation departments and schools will sponsor competitions among youngsters at push-starting the sleds, encouraging those who excel at starts to pursue the Olympic sport.)

Other National Organizations

Aside from the U.S. Olympic Committee, the only other national organization active in luge is the American Rodelers Association (ARA). ("Rodel" is the German equivalent of the French word "luge.") Most active lugers in the United States are members of ARA. This organization was founded in 1966 as an association of luge athletes but played no effective role in the sport and quickly fell into disuse. However, two years ago outraged lugers resurrected ARA after the U.S. Olympic Luge Committee selected as coach of the Olympic team a man who reportedly had never taken a full ride down a luge run. Acting as a forum for athletes ARA now publishes an informational newsletter and represents the point of view that the most serious problem in the sport is that athletes have virtually no control over or input into the administration of the sport. If this situation persists, ARA will undoubtedly challenge the AAU for the franchise.

RESOURCES

Personnel

The AAU Luge Committee consists of 36 representatives of various AAU regional associations. All of these representatives are volunteers. The part-time services of an administrator and his staff at AAU House are available to the committee as needed.

Finance/Funding

As stated, luge has been unable to generate enough funds for effective growth. The AAU pays membership dues to FIL ($300 per year) and reimburses the U.S. representative to the FIL Annual Congress for transportation and lodging (approximately $1000 per year), but virtually all other monies available to the sport come from USOC Development funds.

The USOC contributed approximately $3500 per year in quadrennial 1973-1976 for equipment and transportation for the national team. The USOC has been criticized by athletes and the AAU Luge Committee for not contributing more money to the sport, but actually has been fairly generous in this regard, considering the small number of annual luge athlete registrations.

Costs to Participants

Luge athletes normally must spend a minimum of $250 (for sleds) to participate in the sport, plus a varying amount for transportation to a training facility. The bobsled run at Lake Placid is the only operating track in the U.S. suitable for luges, but there are so many problems involved in scheduling time at the bobrun that most lugers who train on a regular basis must do so in Europe on a luge track. Obviously, the costs of transporting athletes and sleds to Europe, as well as paying for lodging, can be prohibitive.

Facilities and Equipment

Luge Tracks

Requirements for an Olympic luge track are fairly simple:

- Minimum length
  - Men's singles and doubles: 1,000m
  - Women's singles: 700m
- Average grade between 8% and 11%
- Minimum curves
  - 1 left curve
  - 1 right curve
  - 1 hairpin curve
  - 1 "S" curve
  - 1 labyrinth
  - 1 straightway
- Course should be refrigerated.

Refrigerated luge runs offer excellent opportunities for full-time (though seasonal) training and competition; unfortunately, they are correspondingly expensive. A refrigerated track costs $2-$5 million to construct (cost varies depending upon site).

A top class non-refrigerated Olympic-type run costs approximately $75,000-$100,000 to build (depending upon site, materials, and duration of construction). In addition, a refrigerated run may be extremely expensive to operate during warm weather (several thousand dollars per day). The cost of building plastic or other artificial tracks depends entirely on the cost of materials, etc., as above. A mountain road which serves as a track may cost nothing.

Although the AAU National Championships are held at the only suitable U.S. luge track (the bobrun at Lake Placid), the run is not designed for luge sleds and is considered dangerous for luges. [Note: On luge tracks and combined bob-luge runs, such as at Innsbruck, the track is flat through the curves and descends through the straightways. On the flat curves, the momentum of the luge forces the sled's runners to dig into the ice, and enables the sled to be steered. Runs (like Mt. Van Hoevenberg) designed only for bobsled racing descend both on the straightways and the curves; the great weight of the bobs permits them to get traction on the ice without the added pressure on the runners created by flat curves. Luge sleds, however, may easily lose control.]

Luge tracks have been built in varous parts of the country during the past 10-12 years; several are unusable because of poor construction and others have gone bankrupt. No luge tracks are currently in operation in this country.

Luge Sleds

Sleds used in Olympic competition must adhere to the following specifications:

- Maximum weight
  - 1 man sled: 22 kilograms
  - 2 man sled: 24 kilograms
- Maximum width (between runners) 45 centimeters
- No mechanical steering or braking devices
- Sleds have a seat on which the athlete lies on his back; no paneling or straps (other than a steering strap) which help hold the athlete on the sled are permitted.

No figures are available on the number of sleds in this country; generally, athletes own their own sleds.

No luge sleds are manufactured in the U. S. Sleds cost approximately $250 and import duties levied by U. S. customs run 9% of cost.

In addition to the purchase price of the sleds, athletes must spend money in attempts to improve the design (and speed) of the sled. In Europe, NGBs spend a considerable amount of time and money on sled research and development; in the

U.S., no money is spent on such refinements unless it comes from the athlete's pocket. American athletes generally feel that the technical inferiority of U.S. sleds is one more reason they do not compete on an equal basis with the Europeans.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

Active luge participants are extremely rare in the United States. Although more people in the Lake Placid area than in any other part of the country are familiar with luge, lugers generally are scattered throughout the Northern half of the U.S. No development programs exist which have as their object the increase of mass participation (other than the small, extremely localized Junior Olympic Luge program).

No programs exist which have as their primary goal the development of elite U.S. athletes. Such development is left entirely to the athletes themselves. This is illustrated by the fact that while some 40 people competed in the Olympic Trials, several had never before raced on a luge.

Coach and Officials Development

No programs exist for training or certification of luge coaches or officials. Older, more experienced lugers act as coaches to those who are less experienced. A few foreign-born U.S. residents with solid experience in the sport occasionally will serve as coaches to the U.S. team.

The normal complement necessary to conduct Olympic luge competition consists of 50-70 FIL-certified officials who act as timers, starters, weighers, etc. There are currently no certified officials in the United States. Since the host country is expected to supply officials for Olympic events, this problem has been discussed by the AAU and FIL, but no program has been developed for certifying the necessary American officials in time for the 1980 Games.

COMPETITION

Selection Procedures

Team selection for the 1976 Olympic Games was conducted according to procedures established by the U.S. Olympic Luge Committee. The trials consisted of a series of races in which potential team members competed against one another. The procedures themselves were not controversial, but warm weather seriously interfered with athletes' training both before and after the Trials.

Coach selection for the 1976 Olympic luge team, on the other hand, did not proceed smoothly. As mentioned, the Olympic Luge Committee selected a team coach who reportedly had never taken a full ride down a track on a luge, even though experienced athletes and former European luge coaches were available. Luge athletes expressed their indignation through the USOC's Athletes Advisory Council, which eventually was able to prevail upon the USOC to overturn the Luge Committee's selection. Although the issue was resolved, the luge team did not have a coach until just six weeks before the Games.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Major problems which affect the sport of luge in the U.S. are as follows:

- Lack of a large base of participating athletes;
- Lack of facilities;
- Lack of effective administration;
- Lack of communication between athletes and administrators;
- Lack of money; and
- Lack of experience and technical expertise.

Luge athletes and administrators must begin to work together since both groups obviously are necessary to the sport's success. One reason for the present lack of communication is that the AAU is an organization designed to represent clubs and lugers generally do not belong to clubs. A mechanism to overcome this difficulty exists in the Luge Committee's power to select delegates-at-large to the Luge Committee. Appointing several competitiors to the Committee would be a simple way to supply the committee immediately with the strong athlete involvement so sorely needed. However, if no way can be found to include athletes appropriately in the AAU Luge Committee's administration of the sport, the ARA will probably develop its own administrators and seek to take the franchise away from the AAU.

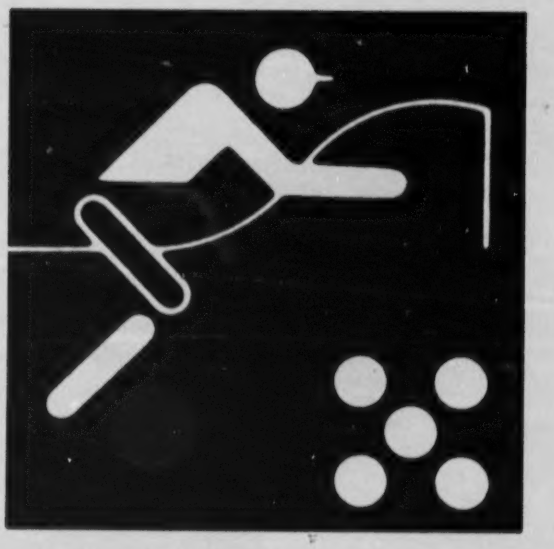
The most obvious other necessity for the sport is the development of adequate training facilities. The refrigerated luge run to be built on Mt. Van Hoevenberg for the 1980 Winter Olympics will boost the sport considerably by providing adequate training facilities for the national team and by stimulating general participation in luge. However, because of the remoteness of the Lake Placid area, the long-term goal of the sport must include the construction of several facilities (not necessarily refrigerated, not necessarily of competition length, and not necessarily of snow and ice) at different places across the country.

The lack of money, participants, officials and expertise are problems which can be addressed only when the critical need for effective administration and the minimum facility base of one full-time luge track has been met. The minimum facility requirements of the sport apparently will be fulfilled before the 1980 Winter Games. |It would be of additional benefit to the athletes if, in the absence of a domestic manufacturer for luge sleds, the import duties on sleds could be eliminated.

A first-class track in this country would ease the tremendous pressure on luge athletes to train abroad and enable world-class luge athletes to prepare more adequately for international competition. In addition, the interest and publicity generated by the luge run would give an effective sport administration the chance to promote luge and to begin building facilities and programs in other areas of the country.

The participation of athletes in the administration of luge, and the building of at least one luge facility, are the two crucial ingredients for further development of luge in the United States. Even so, the sport, having fewer than fifty active competitors, will require an extensive long-term development program if the U.S. is to become a world power in the sport.

PENTATHLON



Surrounded on all sides by enemy forces, the embattled cavalry unit fights on, confident that a courier sent by its commanding officer will bring needed reinforcements in time. The courier, astride a borrowed horse, swiftly makes his way through enemy lines, shooting with abandon at soldiers who dare cross his path, dueling madly with others at close quarters, riding on, his uniform in bloody tatters. When his exhausted horse gives way under him, the messenger resolutely continues, swimming rivers and running through treacherous terrain until friendly forces are reached and help on its way.

It is on this fictitious account of military heroism that the sport of modern pentathlon is based. Soon after the Modern Olympics were established, its organizers felt that a dramatic event with a military background would be popular with the armed forces of nations competing in the Games. Searching through the history of the ancient games, they came upon a competition originally introduced by the Spartans, consisting of five events and designed to test the abilities of the soldier-athlete. With some modifications designed to bring the sport up to date, modern pentathlon became an event on the Olympic calendar in 1912.

OVERVIEW

Events in International Competition

Modern pentathlon is a consecutive five-day competition, with one event taking place on each day. On the first day, the competitor is required to ride a horse he has never ridden over a 1,000m course of approximately twenty obstacles. On the second day, there is a round robin épeé fencing event consisting of one-tourch bouts. The third day is devoted to pistol shooting, the target being a standing silhouette set as a distance of 25m. The 300m swim takes place on the fourth day, and the final day is set aside for the grueling 4,000m cross-country run.

An athlete's performance in each event is judged against standards set by international rules. If the standard for each event is equalled, the competitor is awarded 1,000 points. If the standard is exceeded, points are added to 1,000; if the standard is not met, points are subtracted from 1,000.

The athlete with the most points wins the overall competition, while the team whose members accumulate the most points is awarded first place in the team competition.

History of World Ranking

Although the U.S. has ranked consistently in the top half of the approximately twenty nations which compete in modern pentathlon, it has never won an individual or team Gold Medal at the Olympics or World Championships. However, the U.S. has won two Silver and two Bronze Medals in the Olympics. Additionally, U.S. teams have won two Gold Medals at the Pan American Games. Nations which traditionally excell in international competition are the USSR, East Germany, and Hungary.

Status of Sport

The traditional association which modern pentathlon enjoys with the military has obvious advantages. The military has played a strong role in developing the sport to its present level by contributing services, personnel, and facilities to the sport. The U.S. Modern Pentathlon Training Center at Fort Sam Houston, Texas, renowned for its international caliber facilities and year-round competent coaching in each of the five events, has even been used for training by pentathletes from other countries. In 1971, the center was the site of the world championships.

Nevertheless, the military cannot serve the needs of modern pentathlon indefinitely, and those who administer the sport wish to make it more available to the civilian sector. This will not be easy. In addition to Fort Sam Houston, only one other pentathlon facility exists, on a private estate in Pennsylvania.

High schools and colleges offer only some of modern pentathlon's disciplines, such as swimming and cross-country, and the situation is similar in the nation's club system.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The national governing body for modern pentathlon is the United Stated Modern Pentathlon and Biathlon Association (USMPBA), organized in 1960. It is a not-for-profit corporation listed as a non-taxable entity under Federal law. USMPBA is one of only two organizations in the U.S. responsible for the administration of more than one sport on the Olympic calendar. (The other, of course, is the AAU.) The two sports have a single administrative head because the international body, the Union Internationale De Pentathlon Moderne et Biathlone, governs both sports.

The administrative structure of USMPBA consists of a President, Senior Vice President, three Vice Presidents, a Secretary, and a Treasurer. USMPBA is divided into seven membership groups as follows:

—Group A consists of one delegate each from the AAU, American Fencers League of America (AFLA), American Horse Show Association (AHSA), U.S. Revolver Association, National Rifle Association (NRA), U.S. Ski Association (USSA), NCAA, U.S. Marine Corps, U.S. Army, U.S. Navy, and U.S. Air Force. Each of these organizations is allocated one vote at annual or special meetings.

—Group B consists of sponsors through "life membership" who have contributed $1,000 or more to USMPBA. This group is allocated one vote each up to a maximum of eight.

—Group C consists of all active past officers of USMPBA, each of whom is allocated one vote.

—Group D consists of those who have contributed at least $100 annually. These members are given one vote each up to a maximum of four.

—Group E consists of biathletes and pentathletes who finished first, second, or third in national championships in their respective sports, or who participated in international competition, including the Olympics and Pan American Games. These athletes are given a maximum of 12 votes at meetings.

—Group F consists of trainers, coaches, team officials, and biathletes and pentathletes who do not qualify for Group E membership. This group is allocated five votes at meetings.

—Group G is open to any "interested citizen," and is given a voice but no votes at meetings.

The primary work of USMPBA is accomplished by the Board of Directors (BOD), 22 members who serve four-year terms. They are selected as follows:

— Elected officers (7)

— From Group A, one delegate from each member organization (11)

— From Group F, one delegate

— From Group E, three delegates.

In the event that officers are elected from a group represented on BOD, another individual can be chosen to replace him.

It should be pointed out that no less than 50% of the voting on BOD is composed of Group A members, and it is possible that the percentage could be greater, given the rule that a member from any group elected as an officer can be replaced by another individual from his group. There appear to be no instances of expressed dissatisfaction with this structure, but some national organizations have not taken an active role in USMPBA. For example, the NCAA has not sent a representative to USMPBA meetings for years.

Permanent standing committees of USMPBA include the Executive Committee, (consisting of the seven officers) which acts in behalf of the BOD between meetings; and committees appointed by the President and chaired by each of the three Vice Presidents. The Finance Committee's purpose is to generate and distribute funds for the administration of biathlon and pentathlon. The Development Committee is charged with finding and developing athletes for biathlon and pentathlon, promoting both sports, and coordinating and initiating competition both nationally and internationally.

Finally, the selection committee is responsible for the recommendation of athletes, coaches, and support personnel for national and international competition (final action on these recommendations is taken by BOD). This committee also determines the eligibility of individuals participating in any competition in which USMPBA is involved.

It should be noted that USMPBA is in the process of reviewing its structure, Constitution, and bylaws to determine whether any changes need be made to conform with the recent USOC reorganization.

Funding

USMPBA receives a large portion of its funding for modern pentathlon through the military and from the U.S. Olympic Committee. The U.S. Army annually provides approximately $130,000 for maintenance of the Training Center at Fort Sam Houston. The Army also provides funds to pay both military and civilian personnel employed at the center. Presently, the authorized strength for the center, including athletes, is 43 military and five civilian.

The USOC contributed $41,000 for development over quadrennial 1973-1976, and a $5,700 grant for Olympic trials and team preparation. Funds derived from membership dues and contributions totalled $40,000, with two donors accounting for more than 50% of that sum.

Excluding the contributions of the military, and taking into account that some of the other funds must be used for biathlon, the budget allowed by these contributions is insufficient to bring modern pentathlon into the mainstream of American sports. The USOC's contribution, for example, was only half that requested by USMPBA. Donations and membership fees, while gratefully acknowledged, can be no substitute for the endorsements, media royalties, and sponsorships available to other, better known sports.

USMPBA administrators estimate that an annual budget of at least $150,000 a year, excluding contributions from the military, is necessary to provide an executive director and full-time staff for both modern pentathlon and biathlon. Such a staff would recruit talent for modern pentathlon, arrange for the construction of more facilities, certify more officials, and generally coordinate nationwide activities in each of the sports. Such a budget would also allow USMPBA to sponsor increased competition at the international level, a vitally important factor in the development of any Olympic sport.

DEVELOPMENT

Athletes

In recent years, there has been a modest increase in the numbers of modern pentathletes. In 1968, 18 athletes took part in the national championships. In 1976, 40 competed for spots on the three-man Olympic team, and USMPBA estimates that approximately 200 athletes now compete seriously in modern pentathlon. (There are also 40 Junior athletes eligible to compete in USMPBA events). However, the military still predominates. Half of those who tried out for the 1976 Olympic team and *all* of those who made it, including the single alternate, were members of the armed services. Obviously, as individuals involved year-round in the sport, these athletes were among the best qualified to compete in Montreal. As the Olympic team coach for modern pentathlon said "If anyone besides these guys had made the team, I wouldn't have been doing my job."

As mentioned earlier, members of the armed forces who wish to become pentathletes can be assigned to the training center on a full-time basis. Although civilians who are USMPBA members in good standing also are encouraged to attend the center, their participation is limited because USMPBA is unable to provide travel allowances.

USMPBA and the military are the only organizations in this country conducting a national program in modern pentathlon. Special clinics, competitions and camps are held each year at the training center, but because of inadequate financial resources, USMPBA is unable to develop coaches and officials who can train athletes and conduct competitions at the local level. In most cases, civilian pentathletes are their own coaches, devising training schedules, finding facilities, and participating in competitions promoted by the individual sports. The logistics involved in coordinating a program involving five unrelated disciplines are often sufficient to discourage a potential pentathlete from participating in the sport.

Modern pentathlon has been successful in recruiting athletes who do well in sports such as swimming and long-distance running but are not able to qualify for positions on national teams. In general, the governing bodies of these sports, as well as the school/college community, have been helpful in identifying prospects for modern pentathalon from among their own athletes and in encouraging them to try the latter sport as an avenue to the Olympics. Through this cooperative effort, U.S. pentathletes traditionally do extremely well in the swimming and running events, in which they have had solid coaching and strong competition. The U.S. generally does not perform as well in the fencing event of pentathlon, but it should be noted that eight of the top 24 U.S. fencers are pentathletes. Although coaches versed in all five events are rare, training techniques do not vary greatly from those of athletes in the separate sports. If a pentathlete can find a coach for each event, he generally can make progress. However, the sport needs coaches totally familiar with the demands and disciplines of modern pentathlon in order to develop the most effective training programs.

Officials

Few officials in the United States are capable of administering a competition in modern pentathlon according to international rules and procedures. USMPBA administrators are in the process of correcting this deficiency through better coordination with the world governing body and through recruitment and training programs. If modern pentathlon is to develop on a larger scale throughout the country, the number of qualified officials acquainted with international rules and procedures must be increased.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The principal obstacles preventing modern pentathlon from developing beyond its present stage are two-fold. First, a way must be found to enable non-military pentathletes to devote the time necessary to train for their sport. Second, the sport must receive broader exposure at the local level, chiefly through the sponsorship of the nation's club systems or the school/college community. This could be accomplished either through increased local competition, combined with more frequent trips to the national training center, or throught the development of more facilities such as the Fort Sam Houston center. In many areas around the country, riding clubs, swimming leagues, local recreational departments, and shooting clubs could jointly sponsor modern pentathlon competitions, providing an opportunity for participants in each of the sports to expand their athletic capabilities.

Development of such programs, however, will require the vigorous support of USMPBA which, at this time, lacks the funds to do so. USMPBA has endorsed the creation of an outside fund raising source to help meet its financial needs. With the support of such an entity, modern pentathlon could be widely recognized and enjoyed in this country.

ROWING

The East German national anthem became a familiar tune to Olympic crew fans in the summer of 1976. At the Olympic Rowing Basin on Ile Ste. Helene the anthem was played nine times during the two days of final events. The East German flag, however, was even more prominent. The bright red, yellow and black banner flew from at least one of the three poles during every one of the 14 medal ceremonies held for rowing. The United States flag flew three times those two days; the U.S. anthem was never played.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

United States rowing has come to a time of reassessment. Although American women placed four boats out of six in the finals in Montreal (the first time women's rowing has been allowed in the Olympics) and won a Silver and a Bronze Medal for their efforts, only two of the eight U.S. men's boats reached the finals and, for the first time in U.S. rowing history, the men's eights crew was not one of them. The lone medal brought home by the American men was a Silver in the pairs without coxswain.

Re-evaluation of the sport must involve not only the selection of international crews but the whole system of athlete development in the U.S. American crews are not slower or weaker than in years past; they simply are not keeping up with the international competition.

The National Association of Amateur Oarsmen (NAAO) is well-organized but might benefit from more athlete input as well as stronger financial support. The National Women's Rowing Association (NWRA) is too small, both in numbers and in financial resources, to develop women's rowing successfully.

Development takes place in colleges and universities and a handful of high schools and clubs. The same schools continue to be strong year after year. Few new programs can afford the equipment or coaching required to train successful crews; nor do they have the finances to travel to competition which is often thousands of miles away.

Events in International Competition

The sport of rowing is divided into two categories: "sweeps" and "sculls." "Sweeps" refers to the method of rowing with one oar per person. "Sculls" means rowing with two oars per person. A boat may be rowed with one, two, four or eight oarsmen.

Some boats carry an additional person called the coxswain whose job is to call the pace and strength of the stroke. He/she also must be able to judge the performance of the boat and inspire the oarsmen to maximum effort. Since the coxswain is dead weight, in that he/she doesn't row, he/she should be as small as possible. International rules state that a male coxswain must weigh at least 110 pounds and a female coxswain at least 90 pounds. A light coxswain may carry up to 10 pounds in weights under the seat in order to reach the minimum standards.

Women row six events in international competition, each 1,000 m (total team size is 24 with 7 spares):

a. Single sculls

b. Double sculls

c. Quadruple sculls with coxswain

d. Pairs without coxswain

e. Fours with coxswain

f. Eights with coxswain

Junior women are not included in international competition, nor are women included in the Pan American Games.

Men row eight events in international competition, each 2,000 m (total team size is 30 with 7 spares):

a. Single sculls

b. Double sculls

c. Quadruple sculls without coxswain

d. Pairs with coxswain

e. Pairs without coxswain

f. Fours with coxswain

g. Fours without coxswain

h. Eights with coxswain

Rowers are divided into several categories for domestic and international competition. A Junior is under 18. An Intermediate is over 18 but has not won an important Intermediate race. An Elite rower has won a senior event, an Elite event or a Canadian event; or has placed first, second or third in a FISA (Federation Internationale Societes d'Aviron) or Olympic regatta; or has been selected as a U.S. representative to a FISA Championship Regatta.

There is also a Lightweight division. Men's crews must average 155 pounds with no rower weighing more than 160 pounds; women must average 125 pounds with a maximum weight of 130 pounds.

History of World Ranking

Men's rowing was introduced in the 1900 Olympics while women's Olympic rowing was added in 1976.

United States men won 51 Olympic medals — 25 Gold, 14 Silver, 12 Bronze. Eleven of the 25 Gold Medals since 1900 were won by the men's eights crew with cox so that the shutout of the U.S. eights crew in Montreal was an unpleasant surprise. United States women, on the other hand, won a Bronze Medal in the eights and a Silver in the single sculls, a fine Olympic debut.

In the Pan American Games, U.S. men have done extremely well. In every event, they have made the finals every time and won medals in all but three races since first entering in 1955.

The number of men's boats and their placement in the World Championships has been inconsistent although some U.S. boats have always made the finals. Women began competing in the World Championships in 1963. For the next 10 years U.S. women had only nine entrants, all of whom finished last. With the appointment of the U.S. Olympic Women's Rowing Committee (USOWRC) in 1973, American women made steady progress. In the 1975 World Championships four of the six boats made the finals and the eights won the Silver Medal.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

Founded in 1872, about 50 years after the sport was imported from England, the National Association of Amateur Oarsmen (NAAO) is a tax-exempt organization recognized as the governing body for U.S. rowing. NAAO administers the sport, holds an annual national championship regatta, holds trials for international competition, promotes rowing through an official publication (*The Oarsman*), and represents U.S. rowing at FISA meetings.

NAAO membership is divided into two categories: organizations and individuals. Organizations are defined as clubs, associations, educational institutions or other organizations interested in rowing, with memberships of at least four clubs or educational institutions.

Individual members are subdivided into competing, sustaining and life. A competitor (anyone actively engaged in racing) must pay an annual NAAO fee of $4.00 in addition to the NAAO fee paid by his or her club or school. Sustaining members, persons interested in supporting rowing through NAAO, pay an annual fee of $10.00. A life member pays a one-time fee of $200. In April 1976, NAAO's membership tally was 193 organizations, 3,245 competing members, 761 sustaining members, 242 life members and 1,188 women competitors.

NAAO holds an annual meeting each January. Each member organization sends one delegate, who is entitled to one vote. Individual members cannot vote except as representatives of member organizations. Individual competitors, therefore, have no vote.

NAAO is governed by a Board of Directors (BOD), composed of 25 voting members, 7 nonvoting members, and all ex-Presidents who wish to participate (ex-Presidents have a combined total of one vote). To qualify for election to the Board, members must at some time have competed in, coached, or directly served rowing; must be a member of one or more member organizations; and, at the time of election and during his/her term of office, must be an individual NAAO member.

The general voting membership annually elects five new BOD members to four-year terms. At the

BOD's annual meeting these four-year members then elect five additional BOD members to one-year terms.

Non-voting members of the Board may include one delegate from each of the following organizations:

- Canadian Association of Amateur Oarsmen (CAAO),
- Federation Internationale Societes d'Aviron (FISA),
- U.S. Olympic Committee (USOC),
- U.S. International Men's Team,
- U.S. International Women's Team,
- National Rowing Foundation (NRF), and
- National Women's Rowing Association (NWRA).

The BOD elects from among its members a President, Vice-President, Treasurer and Corresponding Secretary. An Executive Committee composed of these officers, the immediate past president and any other BOD members appointed by the President, governs NAAO between Board meetings and oversees the award of regatta sites for the National Championships, the Junior Championships and FISA trials.

Members and chairmen of the 13 standing committees are appointed by the President with confirmation by the Board. These committees administer specific areas of the sport such as Finance, Publications, Membership and Development.

Athletes have input into NAAO administration through two BOD representatives (one man and one woman) who can voice the concerns of competing athletes even though they have no vote. In addition, several BOD members serving as delegates from member organizations are current or recently active oarsmen and coaches. However, athletes as a whole are not active in NAAO. Leadership therefore seldom changes; the NAAO Rowing Guide shows the same names on several committees and on the BOD as well, names which remain year after year.

Perhaps one reason for the relative lack of participation by athletes and coaches is that the school/college community may put on regattas without NAAO sanctions. Programs at these institutions are independent of NAAO; a rower doesn't have to pay NAAO dues until he enters the national championships or wishes to enter FISA regattas. Hence, NAAO has no real constituency. (The same applies to women rowers and the national women's organization discussed in the following section.)

Other Major Organizations

The National Women's Rowing Association (NWRA), founded in 1962, is the only other organization involved in rowing at the national level. However, programs are limited and the budget small. NWRA represents women's rowing nationally in NAAO, holds an annual national championship regatta for women, and sanctions six annual regional women's regattas.

NWRA elects a President, Secretary, Treasurer, Parliamentarian and six regional vice presidents to serve two-year terms. A membership chairman and a publications chairman are appointed by the President. Meetings are held twice a year, in January and June. NWRA has no publication of its own, using the NAAO magazine or private mailings to communicate with its members.

NWRA membership is divided into organizational and individual categories parallel to those of NAAO, except that competing NWRA members belong through their organizations and do not pay an individual competitor's fee as do NAAO athletes. However, oarswomen must pay NAAO a competition fee to participate in NAAO-sanctioned events. Currently, NWRA has 60 member organizations, six sustaining members and no life members. Each organization has one vote; no individual member has a vote. Athletes may be elected to represent their organizations and the President and Vice President must have been in competitive rowing for at least two consecutive years prior to being elected.

NWRA has one non-voting representative on the NAAO Board of Directors. At the 1976 NAAO annual meeting an amendment to change this to a voting membership was defeated, leaving women rowers still without an equal voice in making national policy in their sport. As women's participation in the sport increases, NWRA will have to consider whether to dissolve itself as a separate organization and incorporate with NAAO. As a step in this direction, the functions of the two Olympic Games Committees, defunct as of April 1977, will be incorporated into two separate NAAO committees — one for women, one for men.

For the most part, women rowers have been satisfied with the way NAAO has run the sport. However, NWRA leaders are concerned that without written guarantees the voluntary and well-meaning cooperation seen until now between the men's and women's programs may founder, making the future of women's programs in NAAO uncertain.

The National Rowing Foundation (NRF), a tax-exempt organization, was founded in 1966 by two oarsmen interested in building a financial base for the sport. NRF is composed of a Board of Trustees, a Board of Directors, an Executive

Committee, Chairman, Secretary and Treasurer. The Board of Trustees originally was appointed by NRF founders and in turn invites additional members to join. The Trustees make financial contributions to the foundation and elect a Board of Directors to three-year terms. The Board in turn elects the three officers. The Board approves the allocation of funds and appoints an Executive Committee to take care of matters between Board meetings.

NRF has five stated goals: (1) to promote and fund oarsmen in domestic and international competitions; (2) to contribute funds toward better facilities and equipment in the U.S.; (3) to promote rowing competition within the U.S., both American and international in nature; (4) to encourage research and development of rowing techniques, training, and design of equipment; and (5) to increase public interest in rowing as a competitive sport and as healthy exercise.

Only the first goal has been actively pursued since funding goals have not been met.

Relationship with International Federation

NAAO sends three representatives to all FISA congress and commission (committee) meetings. As an "ordinary" member of FISA, NAAO is allowed three votes on all FISA matters. "Extraordinary" members are allowed one vote.

FISA gives current athletes an opportunity to make suggestions at FISA meetings. A special FISA sub-commission on women's rowing, chaired by a woman, holds separate meetings to consider such matters as lengthening the women's course, permitting junior women (under 18) to compete internationally, and promoting women's rowing in general.

RESOURCES

Personnel

NAAO has two part-time paid staff at national headquarters in Philadelphia who keep records (registration, membership, competition results), act as clearinghouse for rowing "souvenirs" and provide communication between the general membership and the administration. All other administrators are volunteers. NWRA is entirely volunteer.

There are approximately 500 coaches in the U.S., of varying degrees of expertise. NAAO's National Technical Advisor is also the national coach. For two years he has been on an annual $20,000 salary through a special NRF grant which will not be renewed after 1976. Neither NAAO nor NRF allocated funds for his expenses as technical advisor, but as coach for the Olympic men's eights crew he received expenses from the USOC.

NAAO certified officials (90 as of July 1975) are all volunteers and pay their own expenses. FISA has certified 20 Americans to officiate international events.

Facilities and Equipment

An international rowing course for FISA Championship Regattas must meet the following specifications:

- Length: Exactly 2,000 m in a straight line for each crew, with at least 100 m of clear water beyond the finish.
- Width: Sufficient for 4 to 6 crews, with each lane 15 m wide except when marked by buoys. Minimum lane width is 12.5 m. There must be at least 5 m of clear water between the outer limits of the course and the bank or any permanent structure.
- Depth: If it is not the same for every lane, minimum depth must be 3 m. If it is the same for all lanes, minimum depth is 2 m.
- Other materials necessary:
  - permanent starting structure, with starter's platform;
  - steering marks for coxless boats, visible over the first 1,000 m of the course; and
  - buoys, lane markers, photographic equipment to record finishes, microphones and loudspeakers.

No U.S. rowing course fits the above requirements, primarily because of the multiple use of waterways. NAAO has not been able to build permanent starting structures on certain lakes and rivers because they would interfere with recreational and commercial traffic. A permanent rowing basin meeting international specifications would cost an estimated $2-18 million, depending upon supplemental facilities for spectators, wind breaks, locker rooms, etc., and the condition of the site before construction. Efforts are underway to raise funds to construct a permanent international course in New Haven, Connecticut.

The following are approximate costs for shells (boats): single, $1800; double, $2300; quad, $3000; pairs, $2300; eights, $4500-$5000. Oars cost $100-$200 each.

Other equipment needed in training, but beyond the reach of many programs, include ergometers (machines to measure strength — $2000 each) and rowing tanks. A two-person tank costs $5,000-$10,000; an eight-person tank with stationary water costs $60,000-$100,000; and an eight-person tank with flowing water costs $250,000.

Both the men's and women's national teams have access to a fleet of boats. The men purchased a complete new fleet for the Montreal games with USOC funds; disposition of this fleet after 1976 has not been determined. Because most world class competition takes place in Europe and transporting boats back and forth is impractical, both the men and women keep their fleets in England. NRF maintains the men's fleet, renting it out when it is not in use to defray storage and maintenance costs. The women's fleet, purchased between 1974 and 1976 with USOC funds, is maintained by USOWRC and is not rented out.

Access to facilities, boats, training equipment, even to coaches, is a problem for the non-collegiate and woman athlete. Some rowing clubs may charge membership dues beyond the financial means of the athlete. Many clubs still prohibit women from joining. In the summer even collegiate athletes must look elsewhere to row. Most colleges and universities cannot afford to keep their boathouses open during the summer, nor can they afford to pay coaches to be on hand even for safety reasons if not for instruction.

Equipment costs limit both the number and types of boats available in most club and university programs, as well as prohibiting many programs from buying such indoor training equipment as ergometers and rowing tanks.

Finance/Funding

At the national level, the USOC provides the majority of funds used for both men's and women's rowing. With the demise of the U.S. Olympic Men's and Women's Rowing Committees, these monies will now go to NAAO.

For the quadrennial 1973-1976, the USOC contributed the following:

	USOMRC	USOWRC
Development	$101,700	$50,000
Team Preparation	43,900	10,000
Committee Expenses	3,020	2,235
Trials, etc.	73,300	35,000
	$221,920	$97,235

USOC funds were spent by both Games committees for the following purposes:

- Equipment — buying boats to lend to developing rowers;
- Travel, room & board — domestic and foreign;
- Training camp expenses for coaches;
- Team trials;
- Development clinics for coaches and oarsmen;
- Films from the Olympic Games; and
- Youth development film.

Racing fleets for the men and women were bought with a special USOC grant from the Games preparation budget. The men received $35,000; the women $22,500.

NAAO funds are completely separate from the USOMRC. The NAAO statement of income and expenditures for fiscal year 1975 shows the following:

Balance forward from FY '74	$ 7,356.69
Cash forward from NAAO Headquarters, '74	401.19
TOTAL CASH AVAILABLE 1/1/75:	$ 7,757.88

INCOME

The Oarsman (subscriptions & advertising)	$17,655.75
Dues	18,434.17
Registrations, entrance fees, annual dinner	21,316.35
Clearing House	6,059.25
Misc. (film rentals, dividends, donations)	1,290.65
TOTAL INCOME:	$64,756.17

EXPENDITURES

The Oarsman production	$27,341.46
Salaries	8,322.40
Office expenses	14,448.38
Clearing House	2,201.84
Regatta and Committee expenses	2,657.05
Annual Dinner, '75	3,329.40
Misc. (film, dues, NRF & Savings account)	6,535.59
TOTAL EXPENDITURES:	$64,836.12
Cash in account, 1/16/76	$ 7,677.93

Assets of NAAO, as of 1/16/76 are as follows:

Cash	
Checking account	$ 7,677.93
Savings account	9,189.12
Accounts receivable (Association dues)	2,529.00
Securities	
MONY Mortgage 3,500 shares	2,646.70
MONY Investors 350 shares	2,843.75
Penna. Power & Light 105 shares	2,139.38
Duquesne Light 100 shares	1,887.50
TOTAL:	$28,913.38

As of June 1976, NRF was $40,000 in debt; it had $20,000 in cash and an "endowment" of one $5,000 bond. Funds have come primarily from private donations. Two corporations which have contributed in the past are Bristol Myers ($2,500) and Northeast Petroleum Industries ($2,500).

In addition to maintaining the men's fleet in England (at an estimated cost of $800-$1,000 per year), NRF sends U.S. crews to Europe for regattas and championships, paying all but $100 per oarsman. NRF's original charter stipulated that the money be used for men only, but in 1973 NRF began contributing to the women as well. The amount was token the first year, but in 1974 and 1975 the foundation paid 75% of the women's expenses for travel to the World Championships.

NRF is campaigning to raise more funds for 1977, as well as to pay off its debts. Ex-oarsmen in high-level industry jobs are being asked to seek matching grants from firms (e.g., $5,000 from an executive and $5,000 from his company).

NWRA receives funds completely separate from NAAO. Its financial statement for fiscal year 1976 shows the following:

Balance forward from FY '75		$1281.03
Income		
Dues		$2305.00
USOC Trials		235.00
Interest '75 & '76		58.59
Misc.		165.50
	Total	$2764.09
Expenditures		
Regatta Expenses		$ 929.31
Officers' Expenses		358.05
Fees, Dues & Gifts		813.67
Misc. (Adv., Mailings, Insurance)		380.74
	Total	$2481.77
Balance in account, June 1976		$1563.35

Costs to Athletes

The average athelete, man or woman, rows for a school which covers expenses for coaching, equipment and facilities. The athlete must provide clothing for practice (sometimes for racing as well, but this is usually covered through the program). Depending on the solvency of the program, the athlete may have to contribute to travel expenses for domestic and international competitions. The standard amount per athlete contributed for international travel has been $100, supplemented by NRF. Wealthier programs charge the athlete nothing.

Post-collegiate rowers generally must bear the financial burden alone. Until accepted on the national team an athlete receives no financial assistance. Making the necessary time to train may mean the sacrifice of all or part of a job salary, a problem intensified for the athlete with a family to support.

Major expenses for the elite athlete are transportation and room and board costs for competitions. A post-collegiate athlete living in California, for example, very likely would have to travel to the East Coast to row in the National Championships or the Olympic Trials. Costs to transport a boat are significant as well.

Because women's programs are not fully developed, the post-collegiate oarswoman is not as common as the post-collegiate oarsman. Elite oarswomen still row for universities for the most part, but their expenses will mount equally once they have graduated.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

There are 8,000 to 10,000 rowers in the U.S., about one-third of whom are women. Eastern collegiate rowers are still the core of the sport, a fact reflected in the make-up of NAAO administration, the number and location of national regattas and the clubs represented on national teams, especially the men's team. Scullers on the national women's team generally are Californians, however, largely reflecting the influence of one very successful coach.

Athlete Development

Little money is spent directly on development by either NAAO or NWRA. NRF, by financing trips abroad, helps in developing elite rowers. At the grassroots level, development remains very much a local effort except for the USOC Games Committees' boat-lending programs which NAAO will take over after 1976.

Until World War I, rowing clubs were the center of an essentially recreational sport. After World War I, due to the increase in college rowing programs, clubs began to decline and rowing became a competitor's sport. Today, although the clubs offer a place for the Master (over 30), the post-collegiate, and the non-collegiate rower, few of the clubs are strong. Most of their operating budgets come from membership dues and donations from their wealthier members. Active fund raising outside the club rarely takes place. Funds are used first for building and equipment maintenance, then for new equipment and lastly for coaching. No club has a full-time coach; salaries usually are token.

Clinics and summer camps offer the beginning rower intensive instruction over a short period of time: three to ten days for a clinic, up to two weeks for a camp. Clinics are run by the Rowing Games Committees. Summer camps are conducted by coaches interested in developing the sport by training young (14-18 years) athletes. Neither clinics nor camps make any money so neither can afford follow-up programs. Recently the USOMRC has run special development camps which provide intensive training for oarsmen.

Potential elite rowers may borrow boats purchased by the Games Committees for three to six-month periods. The rower deposits $100 against damage and supplies the oars or sculls. This gives the athlete some extended training without having to share equipment with other competitors.

Most rowers reach their peak in the mid- to late 20s, making post-college training critical. After college the athlete who wishes to continue rowing competitively has two options: the national team or a private boat club.

The national team, chosen either through a camp procedure (described in the section on Competition) or by trials, provides coaching, international competition, and perhaps financial support, depending on whether or not it is an Olympic year.

An athlete can get the same benefits from a boat club, but the financial burden is greater and the quality of coaching varies from club to club. Serious athletes may move to a different city just to row for a certain club, creating potential career and family difficulties. Development of the post-collegiate athlete, therefore, depends on several factors: (1) access to facilities, (2) good coaching, (3) financial support for the athlete and family's living expenses and for competitive travel and equipment, and (4) time to train.

Oarswomen

Until 1973 when women's events were added to the 1976 Olympics, development of U.S. women's rowing was regional and local in nature, occurring almost exclusively in college programs. Spurred by Olympic and other international opportunities, the number of women rowers continues to increase (approximately 3,000 now). However, the relatively low quality of U.S. competition and the lack of opportunity for the average rower to reach her potential reduces the number of world-class athletes to about 100 (the number invited to the two Olympic Training Camps in 1976). These elite-level women emerge from fewer than a dozen collegiate and private programs.

In 1973 the USOC appointed the U.S. Olympic Women's Rowing Committee (USOWRC) to take over the development of elite women athletes. However, financial allocations from the USOC consistently were 50% or less of original USOWRC requests, putting restraints on the program and leaving little room for development below the elite level. The only program for non-elite athletes is the boat-loan program described earlier.

Between 1973 and 1976 USOWRC prepared its teams by holding clinics and training camps and by sending crews to compete in Europe. Most of the funds were spent on travel and equipment. Overall, the programs were a success. U.S. women's crews did well in international competition in 1975 and 1976. But development of the sport as a whole still is not a coordinated effort.

Programs for women collegiate rowers succeed most often where men's programs are well established. However, programs are generally smaller than the men's, the coaching staffs not as well paid, the equipment secondhand, and training times less desirable. All this is no different than in many other women's athletic programs, but rowing traditionally has been called "the gentleman's sport" and women have to fight hard to counter this attitude. After college, women's opportunities are even fewer as many private rowing clubs are not open to women.

Two prominent clubs have produced successful oarswomen: Vesper in Philadelphia and the Long Beach Rowing Association in Long Beach, California. But two clubs at opposite ends of the country, producing a handful of elite oarswomen, cannot be considered a guarantee for the future of women's rowing.

Coaches Development

No program for certifying rowing coaches exists in the U.S. Coaching jobs are offered to athletes from fast crews. There is no system to determine an athlete's ability to teach the sport, only how well he competes; nor is there any system for eliminating the inept. NAAO plans to consider a classification and certification program for coaches in 1977.

A few coaching clinics are held each year, sponsored by the USOMRC or NAAO's National Technical Advisor. Although elite coaches find these clinics of little value (successful coaches are reluctant to share expertise) younger and newer coaches find them somewhat helpful. However, travel expenses, the infrequency of the clinics and the lack of follow-up courses or exams are problems that have not been solved. NAAO plans to consider the need for a national coach.

Training of Officials

NAAO runs a national certification program for officials. A written examination based on the NAAO Rowing Guide, plus simulated course examinations are given periodically to anyone wishing to become an official. Certification must be renewed every three years and the Chairman of NAAO's Judge-Referee Committee can remove certification if renewal requirements, such as attendance at two or three regattas, have not been met.

Officials pay their own expenses, which tends to narrow the choice of available officials to those who can afford to travel. Participation by some very good officials has been limited by these financial restraints.

Sports Medicine

Little progress has been made in improving the technical aspects of the sport. Coaches work from training programs designed originally for other sports and adapted to rowing. NAAO's National Technical Advisor was hired to coordinate sports medicine information, hold coaching clinics and coach the national men's elite eights crew. However, with no budget beyond his own salary, the advisor's efforts were limited to gathering information from various national and international sports medicine personnel and publications. There is no national publication on sports medicine for rowing, although articles appear periodically on the subject in *The Oarsman*.

Role of Media

Media coverage of rowing is primarily local. TV coverage is rare. Some national TV and print coverage of Olympic rowing exposed the American public to rowing, but this was coverage spurred by Olympic fever, not rowing fever, and cannot be counted on as a regular tool.

Selected exposure of the sport has been suggested by several NAAO members. For example, effectively marketing *The Oarsman* to colleges and universities, public recreation programs and sporting goods manufacturers should spur interest in the sport, as well as generate new sources of funds, new programs and perhaps the opening of new facilities to rowing programs.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

NAAO rules of competition parallel FISA rules and are followed by all U.S. rowing programs.

U.S. amateur rules for rowing are quite broad. The NAAO constitution states that anyone who "practices rowing" and receives no "direct monetary gain therefrom" is an amateur. FISA allows a coach of "junior" rowers (under 18 years) to participate in international amateur competition, but no other coach or official may do so. NAAO leaves this area open, allowing coaches and officials to compete if they don't wish to compete internationally. NAAO recommended that FISA adopt the American rule at the 1973 FISA International Congress. However, the Congress voted to keep the stricter FISA rule intact because most member countries do not have professional (full-time) collegiate rowing coaches. Domestically, NAAO applies the FISA rule on a case-by-case basis, feeling that there is no advantage in coaching professionally because it limits time for intensive training.

Domestic Competition

All regattas held in the U.S., except those conducted for and by educational institutions, must be sanctioned by NAAO. The two major domestic events are the NAAO National Championships and the NWRA Championships. NAAO and NWRA organize the FISA trials while Olympic and Pan Am trials are handled by the Olympic Games Committees (after April 1977, handled by NAAO).

Regional regattas are sanctioned by the national organizations, but organized by the various regional associations. Colleges, universities and high schools as mentioned earlier, may organize regattas without sanction from the national federation.

International Competition

FISA World Championships are held annually. In Olympic years World Championships are held for lightweights and juniors but not for heavyweight men and women. The Pan American Games have events only for heavyweight men, while the Olympics involve heavyweight men and women.

Team selection for international competition involves two distinct methods: trials and camps. Trials are held just prior to the event in question — Pan Am, Olympic or FISA regattas. Winners make the team to race in that boat only. No individual can race in more than one type of boat. Spares or alternates are chosen by the USOWRC and USOMRC upon recommendation from the coach involved.

In the national camp selection process, a coach invites potentially superior athletes to the camp for a period of weeks. Selection criteria are: strength (as measured by the ergometer), rowing skills and the coach's judgment about the rower's competitive attitude. At camp the coach tests athletes individually and in various combinations, making a final selection about three weeks before the international event. An athlete who does not make the boats at the camps may go to the trials for another try at the international team. An athlete may enter trials in up to three boats.

The number and types of boats in camps or trials change from year to year at the discretion of the Games Committees. This practice has come under criticism from both men and women, especially after the 1976 Olympic results. One complaint from the women was that there was too little time, approximately two weeks, for athletes dropped from the camp to practice for the trials. In addition, camp boats had little time to practice and no time to race together before the Olympics.

The men's eights camp had other problems. Three elite oarsmen left the camp before final selections were made. Whether or not the departure of the oarsmen was due to disillusionment with the coach, personally and professionally (as is generally believed), the coach had little choice in final selection because only nine oarsmen remained at the camp.

The question of holding trials or choosing boats from camps is a difficult one. Trials allow more people to compete and selection is totally unbiased. However, the camp, which tries to bring together the best rowers from across the country, was successful for the women in 1975 and 1976 and for the men in 1972 and 1974. The best time for selection is also critical. Beginning a camp before the college year ends in May gives the team more time to train, but it also prevents college rowers from participating.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Rowing in the U.S. is a sport of tradition facing the challenge of scientifically trained East Europeans. At present, American rowing lacks the comprehensive development program as well as the manpower, financing and technical knowledge necessary to compete effectively internationally. Although the sport is growing, the number of elite athletes that filter to the top has not changed significantly over the years and most of them still come from traditional (East Coast) rowing powers. Choices for international crews remain limited.

The same can be said of coaches: the few who have produced elite athletes continue to be selected for camps and international trips. Coaches in beginning programs lack training in technical aspects of rowing and there is no system to train and certify them.

NAAO functions on an administrative level but — due primarily to financial limitations — its efforts do not extend into development. In addition, it is not fully representative of the sport today. Few current athletes, men and women, participate in its councils; women have a voice but no vote on the Board of Directors. Another problem is the relative lack of involvement of coaches and athletes from areas outside the East Coast. In the past NAAO paid little attention to fund raising on the national level, leaving local programs to fend entirely for themselves.

The National Rowing Foundation, formed in 1966 to establish a financial base for travel expenses and development, is now in debt. NRF has been unable to generate enough funds to support development and plans to do so have been shelved for the time being.

Additional problems are:

- Lack of training facilities and equipment;
- The necessity of indoor winter training for a spring and summer competitive season;
- The unavailability of coaches and facilities between May and September;
- The dilemma of the post-collegiate athlete;
- The extensive needs of women rowers.

The key to solving many of these problems is the coordination and implementation of a permanent, nationwide fund-raising effort. A centrally directed body is required to collect and distribute funds, upon recommendation of the NAAO Board of Directors, to projects deemed worthy by the Board.

In all of this, serious consideration must be given to NWRA's role. United States women proved in Montreal that they can compete successfully at the international level. However, U.S. men rowers have a century headstart, so women's needs for coaching and facilities more often than not take a second place in this traditionally male sport. NWRA as it now exists cannot by itself support an adequate program for women and must reconsider its options. Although it gives women rowers a special identity and is better able to understand their needs, NAAO is the franchise holder for the sport and will receive all USOC development funds for rowing. NAAO is also more powerful organizationally. With an expanded role for NRF, the women would best be served financially by becoming a full partner in NAAO. NAAO, in turn, must be reorganized to give women equal votes, equal participation at both the executive level and the committee level, and equal access to funds.

Future NAAO reorganization should encourage greater involvement on the part of coaches and athletes from areas outside the East Coast. Election of the Board of Directors by region instead of from the membership at large could accomplish this aim.

SHOOTING

The day before the 1976 U.S. Olympic Team left Plattsburg for Montreal, the U.S. Olympic Committee (USOC) asked all team captains to meet for a rehearsal of the next day's activities which would include a speech by the President of the United States. Only three sports, one of which was Shooting, complied with the request. The plan called for team captains to meet with the press and then to be recognized from the speakers' platform before the President's speech. The shooting team captain described the following events:

"The entire Olympic contingent was not at Plattsburg at this time and there were very few teams on hand. Of the teams on hand, only three saw fit to come to the rehearsal. Shooting was one.

"On the day of departure I looked over the vacant seats and noted that each had a name written on it and that mine was not present. I spoke to an Olympic official about the problem before mounting the platform. The official merely seated me in another man's chair and the program began. One by one, each team captain was recognized and asked to stand, and his team rose in the audience amidst cheers — all except the shooting team. Even when the speaker was told that he had left someone out, he just glanced over his shoulder and continued. The shooting team bus I left in drove 20 miles without anyone speaking. I think everyone felt as bad as I did."

This oversight had a precedent, the team captain points out. "At the 1975 Pan American Games U.S. rifle shooter Lones Wigger was elected flag bearer and was totally ignored by the press, but I really never expected this type of haphazard organization at the Olympic staging area. I suspect the part that galls my teammates and me the most was that even after a blunder as gross as this in front of the entire City of Plattsburg and the President of the United States, no attempt was made to recognize the team afterward. I'm sure the television cameras that filmed this farewell ceremony had no idea a shooting team existed for the U.S. The 14 of us on the team, however, are sure that in the U.S. tally of medals there are two Golds and a Silver that must still be unaccounted for. As usual, the shooters did their part without recognition."

Despite the medals won by the U.S. international shooting team in the Pan American and Olympic Games, these competitors are largely ignored by the media. While the competition itself might not be as exciting to watch as other events on the Olympic schedule, a shooting medal counts every bit as much as a medal in swimming or in track and field.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

The sport of shooting has been on the Olympic calendar since 1896, and domestic and international competitions have been part of the American tradition since the country's beginnings. Recently, however, interest and encouragement have waned, for a variety of reasons which will be discussed throughout this chapter.

American shooters have shown themselves to be strong performers in international competition, notably in the rifle events, although in the 1976 Games the U.S. also won medals in trapshooting. These accomplishments have come despite the many barriers faced by potential world class shooters. Some of the handicaps under which shooters labor include:

Two Styles of Shooting

The use of separate rules for domestic and international competition negatively affects the development of world class shooters in the U.S. American shooters generally are introduced to international rules late in their careers and very few international-style facilities are available in most of the shooting disciplines. United States shooters thus are at a competitive disadvantage at the international level since other countries typically have only international-style facilities and programs.

Rule differences for the four disciplines of rifle, shotgun, running boar, and pistol are as follows:

Rifle. Changes in the past several years have brought domestic rifle competition into greater alignment with international events. If the trend continues, rifle shooting in the U.S. might be fully international in twenty years. Right now, however, equipment (including regulation clothing) and target requirements differ for the domestic and international programs.

Shotgun. For international trapshooting, the bird houses release the clay pigeon targets at angles and elevations different from those in domestic competition. Rules in both trapshooting competitions, however, are generally the same. In domestic skeetshooting the speed and release of targets are radically different from those in the international event. Domestic ranges and bird houses may be used for international-style skeet competition by cranking up the spring controlling the bird release, but this doesn't simulate exactly the release from true international facilities. The major differences between international and domestic skeet rules are that international rules require 1) that there be a delay up to three seconds between the call for the bird and the release of the target, while domestic rules require immediate release; 2) that the birds be released at faster speeds than those for domestic skeet; and 3) that shooters keep their shotguns at the hip until the bird is released, unlike domestic shoots in which shotguns may be held at the shoulder throughout.

Running Boar. There is no domestic program of running boar shooting separate from the international program. Few civilians are exposed to running boar since only the military develops shooters in this event.

Pistol. There are few real differences between international and domestic pistol styles, so present domestic ranges could be used for four-fifths of the international pistol events if targets were changed to international specifications. However, the fifth event — rapid-fire silhouette — would require installation of costly, specialized equipment, which most clubs can ill afford.

Financing

Only shooters in active military service have equipment provided at no cost; most elite athletes who are "post-collegiate" and self-supporting find it difficult to finance their yearly equipment costs, which can run to several thousand dollars for ammunition alone.

Training

The only intensive program for training international-style shooters is now conducted through the U.S. army marksmanship program, while occasional programs are offered by police academies, a few clubs, and select high school and college institutions. Coaches receive virtually no training in the international style except what is available through the military.

Competition

Most competitions held in the U.S. are conducted using domestic rules. These rules make it easier for competitors to shoot perfect scores, for range owners to make a profit (since more shooters can be accommodated in the same period of time), and for winners to earn cash prizes. Shooters have few incentives to convert to international rules, since facilities and competitions are scarce, and large money prizes are not allowed under international rules of amateur eligibility.

Media

Shooting sports suffer from the negative attitude toward firearms characteristic of much of the public and the media. Also, shooting competitions have little spectator appeal. As a result, shooting competitions get virtually no press coverage.

Events in International Competition

The seven shooting events presently on the Olympic calendar are:

Moving Target:	Clay Pigeon (trap) Skeet Running Boar
Rifle:	Smallbore Prone Rifle (English Match) Smallbore Free Rifle (Three-position)
Pistol:	Rapid Fire Pistol Free Pistol

Each country may send two competitors per event to the Olympics (male or female), as well as a team manager, an assistant team manager, and a gunsmith.

Following is a description of Olympic events (international-style):

Clay Pigeon

This shotgun event requires the competitor to break a saucer-shaped disc 11cm in diameter travelling at speeds of 130-150 mph. The range contains 15 traps (machines for throwing the clay target) divided into five groups of three traps each. Fifteen meters behind the trap houses are five shooting stations in a line. Shooters fire at a traget from one of the three traps directly in front of their shooting station and then move on to the next station. Competitors may fire twice at each target; there is no penalty for breaking the clay bird with the second shot.

Competition lasts three days: during each of the first two days, shooters fire at 75 birds (three rounds of 25 targets each) and at 50 birds on the final day (two rounds of 25 each). Team scores are based on results of Days One and Two.

Skeet

During Clay Pigeon shooting, the angle of the target is changed to give the competitor a variety of flight paths. In Skeet competition, target flight paths remain constant and the shooter moves around a semicircle of seven shooting stations to change the angle at which the bird is presented.

The skeet target is identical to the clay pigeon and is thrown at a speed of 130 mph. Once the shooter calls for the bird, an automatic timer has up to three seconds in which to release it. The shooter must keep the butt of his shotgun resting on his hip until the target is visible. As in Clay Pigeon, competitors shoot 200-bird matches, but are not allowed two shots at one target.

Running Boar

A paper cutout of a wild boar is the moving target in this rifle event. Scoring rings on the shoulder of the boar are worth from one to ten points. The boar makes runs to the left and then to the right on a track 50m down range from the competitor and is presented to the shooter at two speeds, a five-second "normal run" and a 2½-second "fast run." Each time the competitor fires he must return his rifle to the ready position on his hip until the boar is visible again. During the two-day match the competitor fires 60 shots (30 on normal runs and 30 on fast runs) for a possible perfect score of 600. Running Boar is the only international event in which telescopic sights are permitted.

The International Olympic Committee is reviewing this event because so few countries participate; it may be dropped from the 1980 Olympic Games. In fact, the 1977 World Championships have been cancelled because no country offered to sponsor them.

Rapid Fire Pistol

Competitors fire 30 shots on each of two days for a possible score of 600 points. Targets are five paper human silhouettes, presented simultaneously. Firing is divided into three stages. In the first stage or round, the competitor must fire one shot at each target within eight seconds; firing then is repeated for the second round, but the shooter sees the targets for just six seconds; in the final round the shooter must fire at the targets within four seconds. Shooters fire each stage twice during the shooting day for a single day total of 30 shots.

Free Pistol

As the name implies, there are few restrictions on the pistol used in this match. Regulations require only that the pistol be 5.6mm and use metallic sights. The bullseye target is 50mm downrange with a center ring worth 10 points. Competitors have two hours and 30 minutes in which to fire 60 shots.

Smallbore Prone Rifle ("English Match")

This match requires extreme precision. Top shooters are highly skilled at "wind reading." The 10-point ring is smaller than a dime and is set 50m down range. Within a two-hour time limit, shooters fire 60 shots from the prone position for a possible maximum score of 600 points.

Smallbore Free Rifle (Three-Position)

The match is fired from 50m with the smallbore free rifle at a target identical to that used in English Match. Forty shots are fired in each position — prone, standing and kneeling — with a possible score of 400 points per position or a match aggregate of 1200 points.

Some events other than those fired at the Olympic Games are included in other international competitions:

Rifle:	Air Rifle Ladies Standard Rifle — Prone Smallbore Rifle — Standard (Three-Position) Big Bore Standard Rifle
Moving Target:	Running Boar — Mixed Runs Ladies Clay Pigeon Ladies Skeet
Pistol:	Air Pistol Center Fire Pistol Ladies Smallbore Pistol Standard Pistol

A country may send from two to four shooters per event, depending upon the competition. A

1966 ruling of the Union Internationale de Tir (UIT) made it possible for the first time for women to compete with men for places on the Olympic and Pan American Games teams. In 1967 Margaret Murdoch became the first U.S. woman to make a Pan American team and in 1976 she was the first woman from any country to make an Olympic three-position Smallbore Team. In the World Championships men and women compete on separate teams.

History of World Ranking

United States shooters first entered the Olympics in 1900. Since then the U.S. generally has done well in international competition. Both civilians and military personnel have contributed to this performance. The American civilian shooter during the early 1900s was in a class by himself. In 1908 and 1912 the U.S. won the Olympics, defeating 35 nations in these matches, and was considered to have the best shooters in the world by international standards. The tradition has continued. United States teams have set numerous world records and acquired several hundred medals in international competition. Since 1912, the U.S. has won 12 Gold, 9 Silver and 7 Bronze Medals in Olympic competition. Of these, eight Gold, seven Silver, and three Bronze were won during or after the 1960 Games. Nearly all those medals have been won in the rifle events. More recently, U.S. performance at the Olympics has levelled off: 1964 was the peak year, with a total of six Olympic medals, while in each Olympics since, U.S. shooters have won three or four medals. Many current team members have competed for the U.S. since 1964.

In 1974, at the most recent World Shooting Championships, the U.S. finished second to the USSR. The Soviets earned 52 medals compared to 41 for the U.S. and seven for third-place Poland.

In the 1975 Pan American Games, the U.S. performed exceptionally well. Out of 18 possible medals, Americans won 14. Just prior to the 1976 Olympics, U.S. shooters held 15 of a possible 25 world records in rifle shooting, and in Montreal the U.S. won a Gold and a Silver Medal in the rifle events; the real surprise, however, was a Gold Medal in the Clay Pigeon (trap) event.

ORGANIZATION

The Union Internationale de Tir (UIT) is the international federation for Shooting. As such, it recognizes two delegates from each member country. These delegates may represent one, two, or more national organizations for shooting in their country, depending upon that nation's sports governing structure. About 18 of the more than 100 UIT member countries have two or more national governing bodies (NGBs) for shooting sports recognized internationally, usually one for clay target events and one for rifle and pistol events. Both current U.S. delegates, however, represent the National Rifle Association.

National Governing Body

The National Rifle Association (NRA), established in 1871 and headquartered in Washington, D.C. (until 1978 when it plans to move to Colorado Springs, Colorado), is the NGB recognized by UIT. The U.S. Revolver Association (USRA) also was recognized by UIT from about 1920 until about 1948. It then relinquished its claim to one UIT delegate to NRA because it could no longer afford to conduct an international shooting program.

NRA is a multi-purpose organization with certain educational functions which are the basis for its nonprofit, tax-exempt status. More than one million individuals and 8,630 clubs and associations are registered members of NRA. Any organization whose purposes are in harmony with NRA objectives also may be a member (e.g., hunting clubs, police units, colleges, summer camps, related organizations). Most NRA training and competitive activity takes place through NRA affiliated groups including 4,477 senior clubs, 1,922 junior clubs and 197 colleges.

Among NRA's general goals are:

— promotion of social welfare and public safety,

— conservation of natural resources,

— preservation of law and order and defense,

— education in safe and efficient handling of small arms, and

— promotion of good sportsmanship.

NRA publishes two monthly magazines, *The American Rifleman* (for international-style shooters) and *The American Marksman*. It also publishes a handbook on international shooting, the UIT rules, public service announcements and informational booklets for the news media.

Only a subgroup of individual NRA members, specifically the 203,303[1] life members, are allowed to vote at NRA annual meetings. All other individual and organization members may have a voice but no vote.

NRA is governed by a 75-member Board of Directors elected by and from NRA life members over the age of 18. Nominees are selected by a nominating committee of five to eleven Directors and/or voting NRA members. Directors serve three-year terms and have general charge of NRA affairs and property.

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[1] As of September 30, 1976.

The Board annually elects from among its members a President (who may serve no more than two consecutive terms), an Executive Vice President, a Vice President Finance, a Secretary, and a Treasurer. The Executive Director for the NRA Institute for Legislative Action is elected separately by the same board. An Executive Committee composed of the President, Vice Presidents and 20 elected Directors exercises most powers of the Board between sessions. The President, with Board authorization, appoints Chairmen and members of some 15 standing committees.

At the 1976 annual meeting the Board of Directors voted to change their organizational and committee structure. These changes are reflected in the chart on the following page.

As indicated by the chart, NRA's interests are diverse. Although the international shooting program is administered through a separate NRA division, disgruntled competitors have charged NRA with inadequate promotion and development of international shooting and with being unresponsive to shooters through underrepresentation in policymaking and lack of communication. In 1975 only 6.5% of NRA's budget (not including the budget for the Institute for Legislative Action) was expended on international shooting.

In attempting to improve relations with the shooters and to meet legitimate concerns, NRA has restructured its committees based upon shooter requests and appears to be trying to meet competitors' needs within existing administrative constraints. As part of the restructuring effort, NRA designated the 11-man International Competition Committee to replace the USOC Games Committee on Shooting, once the latter is phased out.[2] This International Committee has four subcommittees, each of which has active shooters, including women, as members. The four subcommittees are shotgun (eight members), pistol (six members), rifle (eight members) and running boar (four members). To facilitate committee input to NRA policy making, the chairmen of these subcommittees are all NRA Directors.

In addition, NRA has added two professional and one support staff persons to the International and Shotgun Department, making a total of four professional staff and three support staff. On the professional staff, there is one director of the Department and one man responsible for programming and promoting in each discipline area — rifle, pistol and shotgun. The department has been given greater authority to budget and approve expenditures for all international shooting teams.

The new committee structure for international shooting seems to be consistent with most of the recommendations submitted by active world class international shooters. In particular, committee and subcommittee members were selected by the NRA President from a list of nominees prepared by athletes at the National Championships and formed committees in the three major disciplines. Athletes recommended that:

- Committees be formed in each of the following disciplines and composed of five active international shooters, including at least one woman and one junior/collegiate shooter provided there are active women and junior/collegiate shooters participating in each discipline: Pistol, Rifle, International Trap, International Skeet, and Running Boar. (Juniors are not on the newly structured NRA subcommittees.)
- The five members of each committee be elected by international shooters who participate in their disciplines during the National International Championships each year. (Members were nominated by shooters.)
- Each committee elect its own chairman who shall become a full-fledged member of the International Shooting Committee. (Chairmen were appointed by NRA, so that they would be Directors as well.)

Other Major Organizations

Military

The role of the military, particularly the Army, in shooting sports in the U.S. has been an important factor in our international performance. All competitive shooting in the military is international style and some of the country's best coaching and shooting talent has been attracted to the service by the availability of equipment, facilities, administrative support and opportunities for training and competition.

Organized competitive shooting in the Army began in 1875, just four years after NRA's founding. While marksmanship units are dwindling or have already disappeared in the Marine Corps and the Air Force, the Army's unit at Ft. Benning, Georgia, continues to be active despite financial pressures.

The U.S. Army Marksmanship Unit (USAMU) at Ft. Benning was formed in 1956 in response to an executive order signed by the President of the United States. Concerned over persistent reports that American soldiers were shooting poorly in World War II and the Korean Conflict, President Eisenhower decided to improve marksmanship in the Army and raise the prestige of American marksmen in international shooting. USAMU received a mandate to:

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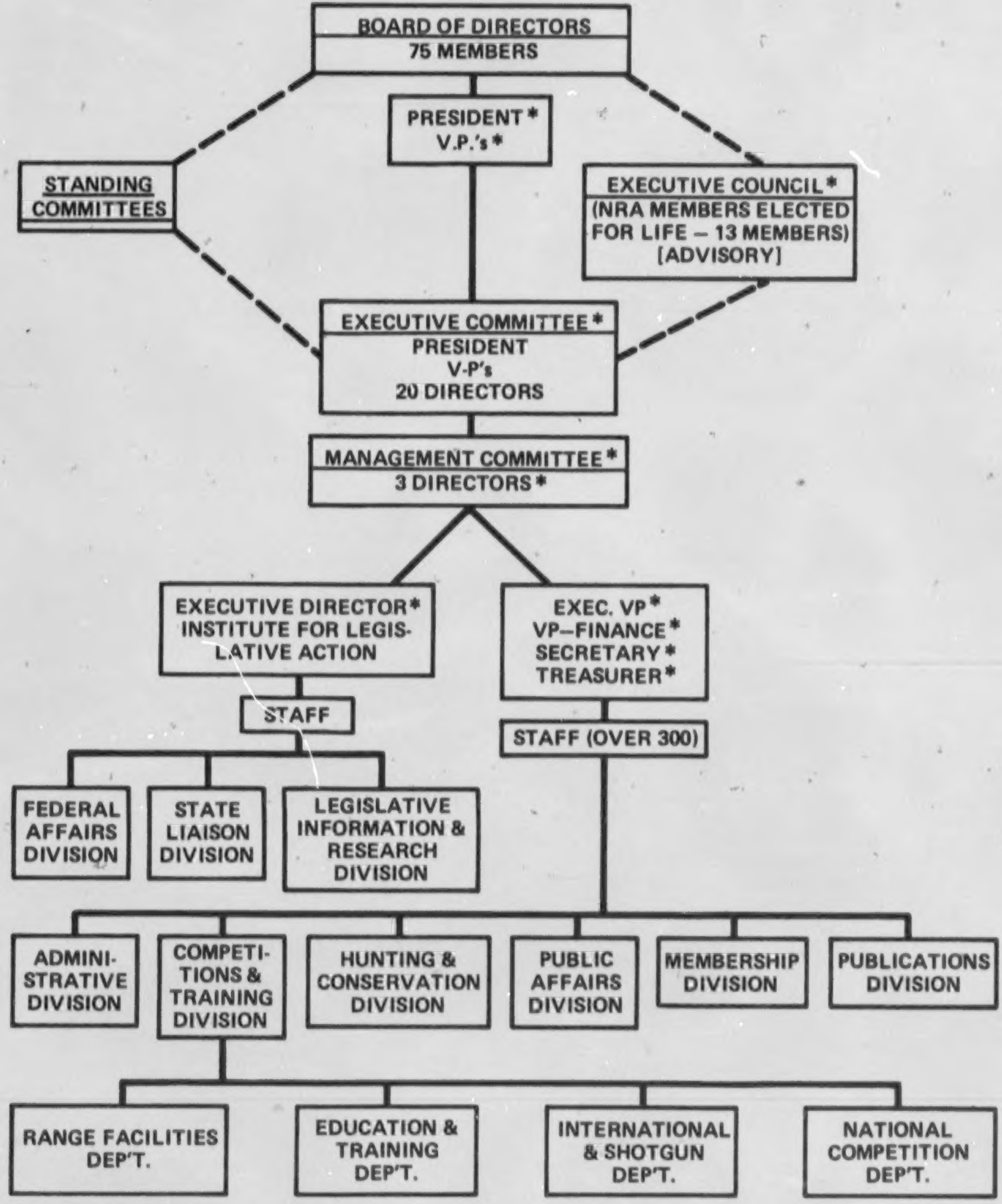
[2] The USOC is currently planning to phase out these Games Committees early in the 1977-80 Quadrennial. The USOC Games Committee for 1973-76 was composed of 12 NRA representatives and 11 other individuals, representing the AAU, NCAA, NJCAA, NFSHSA, NSSA, ATA, USRA, and the Armed Forces.

NATIONAL RIFLE ASSOCIATION


BOARD OF DIRECTORS
75 MEMBERS
PRESIDENT *
V.P.'s *
STANDING COMMITTEES
EXECUTIVE COUNCIL *
(NRA MEMBERS ELECTED FOR LIFE – 13 MEMBERS)
[ADVISORY]
EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE *
PRESIDENT
V-P's
20 DIRECTORS
MANAGEMENT COMMITTEE *
3 DIRECTORS *
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR * INSTITUTE FOR LEGISLATIVE ACTION
STAFF
EXEC. VP *
VP–FINANCE *
SECRETARY *
TREASURER *
STAFF (OVER 300)
FEDERAL AFFAIRS DIVISION
STATE LIAISON DIVISION
LEGISLATIVE INFORMATION & RESEARCH DIVISION
ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISION
COMPETITIONS & TRAINING DIVISION
HUNTING & CONSERVATION DIVISION
PUBLIC AFFAIRS DIVISION
MEMBERSHIP DIVISION
PUBLICATIONS DIVISION
RANGE FACILITIES DEP'T.
EDUCATION & TRAINING DEP'T.
INTERNATIONAL & SHOTGUN DEP'T.
NATIONAL COMPETITION DEP'T.

* ELECTED BY THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS

- improve the skill of Army shooters,
- promote training interest and raise the standards of proficiency in the use of the individual service weapon,
- help keep the U.S. Army national leaders in the marksmanship field, and
- assist the U.S. in attaining leadership in international competition.

USAMU publishes a quarterly newsletter as well as training manuals and technical manuals for all international shooting disciplines. At Ft. Benning, there are facilities for all the international events, a gun shop, and support personnel numbering about 60. The Army spends approximately $7,000 per year (above pay and regular Army benefits) to train each shooter in the marksmanship unit. There are three subsidiary army marksmanship units at Ft. Benning, with total personnel complement numbering about 60, in Kansas, California, and at Ft. Meade, Maryland.

Colleges

More than 1,500 college students are involved in competitive shooting programs, most of which are conducted by ROTC, NROTC, or AFROTC departments. Many programs used to have good marksmanship development programs but most were phased out in the 1960s and in some cases the facilities themselves were dismantled or destroyed. Five states are conducting pilot marksmanship programs in their state colleges and universities administered through the state education associations.

During the academic year 1975-1976, seven of 585 NJCAA member institutions had programs in riflery for men while none had them for women. Of the NCAA's 663 member institutions in 1971-1972 (the most recent year for which figures are available), seven had men's intercollegiate competition for pistol (with 1,976 participants) and 97 had men's competition for rifle (with 1,431 participants). Women's intercollegiate competition was sponsored for rifle by only 13 institutions with 93 participants. Riflery is an intramural sport for men in 34 colleges and for women in 18 institutions.

Most college teams or clubs (192) are registered as NRA clubs. The NCAA reports that for 1971-1972, member institutions had 115 rifle coaches; 185 institutions had a total of 218 rifle ranges, with 28 more either approved for or under construction; and 19 institutions had a total of 19 (domestic-style) trapshooting facilities with five more approved for construction.

National Board for the Promotion of Rifle Practice (NBPRP)

NBPRP was created by Act of Congress in 1903 and is currently authorized under Title 10, U.S. Code, Sections 4307-4313. Its principal mission is to promote, through U.S. Civilian Marksmanship Programs, practice and competition in military-type individual small arms; and to issue the arms, ammunition, targets, and other supplies and appliances necessary. NBPRP also is charged with creating favorable public sentiment toward marksmanship training with military-type individual small arms as a means of national defense. The Civilian Marksmanship Program is the only major program for development of junior and civilian international-style shooting in the U.S. NBPRP consists of 21 to 25 members, appointed by the Secretary of the Army, from the Army, Navy, Air Force, Coast Guard, National Guard Bureau, Department of the Treasury, National Rifle Association, and the country at large. These members, appointed for staggered three-year terms, serve without compensation other than reimbursement of necessary authorized expenses. The President of NBPRP is appointed by the Secretary of the Army, and is usually the Under Secretary.

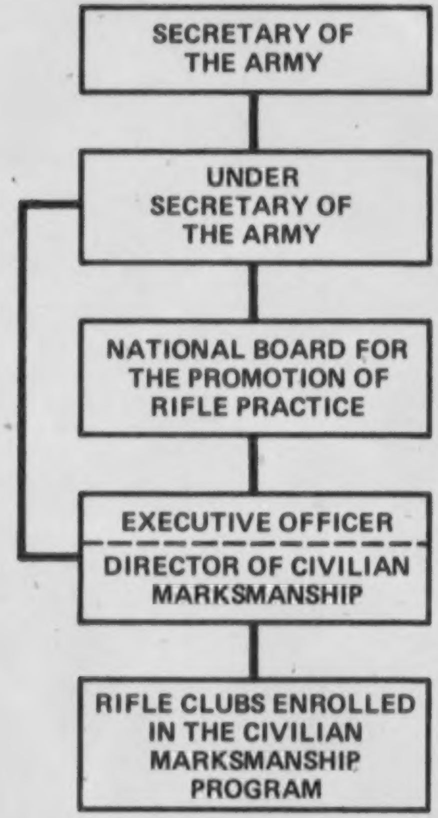
NBPRP as a body is limited to making recommendations to the President of the Board; however, members chosen generally are of such stature that their opinions carry considerable weight. The following chart illustrates the position of the NBPRP and its staff, the Office of Civilian Marksmanship (OCM), within the Department of Defense.

The OCM budget comes from a separate appropriation through the Army, the Department of Defense, and the U.S. Congress and must be justified each year to Congress. In FY 1976 OCM's budget was $391,000. The program has been rebuilding from a near demise in 1968, when its budget was cut back to $50,000.

As of September 30, 1976, 2,225 clubs with 126,596 individuals belonged to the Civilian Marksmanship Program. Most of these participants are boys and girls 12 to 19 years old. Juniors enrolled in this program learn the basic fundamentals of rifle marksmanship including safe and proper handling of all firearms. Approved clubs receive from the NBPRP rifles on a loan basis, ammunition, targets, and rules/training books published by the USAMU. At present, NBPRP has 18,000 rifles on loan to junior clubs.

NBPRP recently has initiated a program to give nationally recognized junior shooters the opportunity to train with Army and Marine Corps international shooters. In addition, NBPRP sponsors major regional and national competitions. In 1976 an estimated 7,000 shooters took part in 52 regional competitions leading to the National

U.S. ARMY SUPPORT FOR THE CIVILIAN MARKSMANSHIP PROGRAM



SECRETARY OF THE ARMY	TITLE 10, US CODE RESPONSIBILITY	
UNDER SECRETARY OF THE ARMY	PRESIDENT, NATIONAL BOARD FOR THE PROMOTION OF RIFLE PRACTICE	APPOINTED BY THE SECRETARY OF THE ARMY WITH DELEGATED AUTHORITY
NATIONAL BOARD FOR THE PROMOTION OF RIFLE PRACTICE	21-25 MEMBERS – SENIOR OFFICERS OF ALL SERVICES, GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS, DISTINGUISHED CIVILIAN REPRESENTATIVES	APPOINTED BY THE SECRETARY OF THE ARMY
EXECUTIVE OFFICER DIRECTOR OF CIVILIAN MARKSMANSHIP		APPOINTED BY THE SECRETARY OF THE ARMY
RIFLE CLUBS ENROLLED IN THE CIVILIAN MARKSMANSHIP PROGRAM		

Trophy Matches. Rules and regulations for the conduct of these matches including separate categories for shooters of varying experience and skill provide the guidelines for almost all competitive shooting within the U.S.

NBPRP also provides assistance for world class civilian shooters in the form of covering travel and associated costs for international competitions other than the Olympic Games. NBPRP arranged and provided for civilian team members to train prior to the 1976 Olympics

High Schools

In 1974-1975 the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA) reported that 333 high schools in ten states sponsored interscholastic rifle competition for boys (with 5,112 participants) while 26 high schools in six states sponsored it for girls (with 471 participants). No state rifle championships were held, however.

National Skeet Shooting Association (NSSA)

NSSA, an associate member organization of NRA, was founded in 1946. The only national organization administering domestic-style skeet shooting in the U.S., NSSA also administers some international shooting programs. Approximately 19,000 individuals, of whom 950 are classified international skeet shooters, are members of NSSA. The association sponsors 3,000 meets a year, of which 2,000 are domestic — and 1,000 are international-style. NSSA owns a shooting facility in San Antonio with 32 skeet fields and two international (i.e., bunker) trap pits.

NSSA is considering relocating its National Gun Club, presently in San Antonio, to a more central part of the country. As part of this effort, the association sent 260 letters to Chambers of Commerce around the nation and received more than 80 replies, including several offers of free land on which to locate its new facility.

At the national level, NSSA recently has been increasingly interested in promoting international shooting, in part because membership has been declining as interest in skeet shooting has waned. This brought it into conflict with a new organization, the U.S. Federation of International Moving Target Shooters (USFIMTS), designed to aid moving target shooters financially and to provide increased competitive opportunities for them. In January 1976, NSSA advised member clubs that they could not hold registered NSSA shoots if they also hosted shoots for USFIMTS. In August 1976, however, the NSSA Executive Committee rescinded that policy. The August decision represents an attempt on NSSA's part to unify all organizations involved with international skeet shooting in the interests of promoting the sport.

NSSA and NRA are trying to improve their working relationship. These two groups have agreed to:

- Cross register shooters,
- Co-sponsor meets, and
- Share the cost of World Championships for shotgun shooters.

They have also agreed that:

- NSSA will donate facilities for training and/or competitions,
- NSSA will nominate three members to the NRA international committee, and
- NSSA will not hold a national championship, but will encourage its members to participate in NRA championships.

NSSA has recently established a committee on international skeet shooting, chaired by the captain of the 1976 Olympic shooting team, himself a skeet shooter.

U.S. Federation of International Moving Target Shooters (USFIMTS)

USFIMTS was organized in January 1976 by a group of active international shotgun shooters. Two basic principles of the federation are that all USFIMTS officials must be active shooters, and that UIT rules must be strictly followed. Its membership numbered about 500 shooters in mid-1976.

An overlap with other organizations such as NSSA have created some difficulties. For example, USFIMTS raised funds to award $500 to all shooters who made the 1976 U.S. Olympic Team. In accordance with international rules, the funds would have to be administered through NRA. NRA refused the money, saying that team shooters were taken care of by NRA between the Trials and the Olympic training camp. In fact, this was true only for military-affiliated team members and those who tried out in early June. Civilian shooters who tried out in early May and received some equipment from NRA at that time found that those supplies did not last until the Olympic training camp in June.

Amateur Trapshooting Association (ATA)

ATA, an associate member of NRA, is a national organization concerned solely with domestic-style competition. While it has approximately 70,000 members, no shooters with international classification are listed. ATA last fielded an international team in 1924 but was involved in team selection for Olympic Games through 1924, again in 1956[3] and for the last time in 1960.

ATA holds one international shoot annually, as a preliminary event at its domestic national championships. ATA doesn't use international rules of trapshooting because:

- International rules do not allow reloading of ammunition, and reloading makes it cheaper to shoot;
- International rules are for amateurs only, and forbid acceptance of prize money in excess of $340 per tournament (ATA tournaments sometimes award higher prize monies);
- International rules make meets longer than they are under domestic rules; and
- Domestic targets (different specifications) are cheaper.

In a recent move, ATA appointed a joint governing board of ATA, and Hall of Fame (Trapshooting) representatives to plan and initiate a Youth Trapshooting Program. The program would not be 100% international, but would provide an opportunity for youth to become acquainted with the sport. Plans call for the governing board to discuss a pilot high school and college-sponsored trapshooting program with educators in Ohio, formulate plans for suitable financing, promote the program to school administrators, and seek assistance from various arms and ammunition manufacturers.

U.S. Revolver Association (USRA)

USRA, founded in 1900 and incorporated in 1904 in New York State, has about 1700 members who pay annual dues of $5. USRA sanctions competitions only in the domestic-style of pistol shooting. Until 1929 when NRA started a program in handguns, USRA was the only U.S. organization sanctioning handgun programs. USRA last had a role in the selection and support of Olympic athletes in 1936, although USRA and NRA were equal members of UIT until 1948.

USRA, a member organization of the USOC, the Modern Pentathlon Association and NRA, administers ten weeks of Winter Postal Leagues, Individual Matches and a Rating Medal Course. Scores are sent in to USRA for comparison and ratings. USRA sponsors no shoulder-to-shoulder competition.

National Shooting Sports Foundation (NSSF)

NSSF's primary purpose as a trade association for the shooting sports is to raise funds. Although it does nothing for international-style shooting, NSSF currently finances domestic shooting education programs at several schools.

U.S. Women's International Rifle Organization (USWIRO)

USWIRO was formed in June 1974 to promote women and juniors in international competition. Any member of NRA or an NRA-affiliated junior club or collegiate team is eligible for USWIRO membership. This includes rifle, pistol and shotgun shooters, who numbered over 300 in 1976.

Objectives of the organization are to:

- Work for the inclusion of women's rifle events in Olympics, Pan American Games and the Shooting Championships of the Americas;
- Have the USWIRO President appointed to NRA's International Shooting Committee so that women competitors will have representation on the governing body;
- Raise money to send four women international rifle shooters to the invitational Benito Juarez Games held annually in Mexico City;
- Shoot both domestic postal matches and matches with women of other nations for the purpose of international friendship;
- Initiate an international rifle training program for U.S. women shooters; and
- Publish a bi-monthly newsletter for USWIRO members.

Three officers constitute the Executive Committee, which is responsible for appointing an Executive Director. Charged with the general supervision and control of the organization, Executive Committee members are volunteers who are active or recent shooters elected by mailed ballot of the membership. Other USWIRO committees are the Advisory Committee (former USWIRO officers and U.S. women and junior team members) and the Shooting Committee (current elite women and junior champions in international-style standard rifle position, standard rifle prone, and air rifle).

Relationship with International Federation

Present U.S. representation in UIT is strong. NRA selects and pays expenses for seven individuals to attend UIT meetings. In spring 1976 NRA had two representatives on the UIT Executive Committee, two representatives on the UIT Technical Committee (one of whom is chairman, an office filled by election of the General Assembly), and one representative on each of the UIT Judges, Pistol and Rifle Committees. In the past, NRA also had been represented on the UIT Shotgun Committee.

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[3] There was no trapshooting in the Olympics from 1928 to 1948 and the U.S. didn't enter a team in 1952.

RESOURCES

Personnel

There are only two paid coaches in the U.S., both of whom are employed by the Department of Defense to work in USAMU at Ft. Benning Georgia. The U.S. currently has five Class A judges (i.e., judges certified for Olympic and World Championship level shooting competition). For domestic-style competitions, there are about 1400 NRA-certified judges in the U.S.

NRA has three paid staff members (full-time) in their International and Shotgun Department. Three more staff are being added in an effort to place greater emphasis on the international shooting program. A number of other NRA employees, including the executive staff, public affairs staff and administrative staff, also work on the international shooting program.

Facilities/Equipment

Facilities for pistol shooting are generally adequate since individual NRA clubs and police organizations have ranges suitable for 80% of the Olympic pistol events. Rapid-fire pistol ranges, however, are in short supply.

Rifle ranges suitable for international shooting are plentiful in the U.S. These are owned primarily by NRA clubs and state or local government units, including the military. Rifle ranges of international specifications are less plentiful and shooters often have difficulty gaining access to them.

Domestic (wobble) traps for clay pigeon shooting which are two to four feet above ground and mechanically operated, cost $4,000 to install. International (bunker) traps, which are underground and hand operated, cost $60,000 to install. There are 17 Olympic-style (bunker) traps in the U.S., but only four of these are active (at Ft. Benning, Ga.; Quantico, Va., and Lackland AFB, Texas). Domestic-style skeet ranges can be temporarily converted to international-style, but most clubs are not anxious to operate international-style because of the wear and tear on machinery caused by winding up the bird house springs to release targets at the higher velocities required.

Only three active ranges in the U.S. meet international regulations for the running boar event: Ft. Benning, Georgia; Quantico, Virginia; and Phoenix, Arizona (civilian). Ranges used for team selection often are dilapidated and function poorly or malfunction during the course of matches. No new running boar ranges have been built since 1969 except for temporary ones built by shooters themselves.

Civilian shooters generally find access to ROTC, school, National Guard and military facilities for training very difficult due to administrative constraints on facility use. An NRA facility in New Mexico designed for all international disciplines was scheduled to be in operation by 1979, but NRA's decision to build a new headquarters in Colorado may delay completion of the project.

Facility development is not being encouraged at the local level. Clubs are not building facilities for international-style competition both because there is no demand from their members and because costs are higher for construction, maintenance and operation of international facilities.

At present, the Pittman-Robertson Act levies an excise tax on the sale of firearms, archery equipment, and ammunitions. The funds generated are channeled to state governments who then may spend all this money on wildlife restoration projects or up to 50% on hunter safety programs. A bill introduced in the 94th Congress (Karth-Dingell Bill; HR 1319), revised and re-introduced as HR 9067, and which will most probably receive serious consideration when re-introduced in the 95th Congress, could provide a means to increase construction of facilities. The bill would allow for excise taxes to be extended to the sale of component parts of ammunition (wads, powder, primers, cartridge cases, bullets, shot). Money generated would go to the state with no more than 50% designated for wildlife restoration projects and up to 50% for hunter education or target range programs. Unspent monies would be credited to a discretionary fund of the Secretary of the Interior and for the following two years would be available to assist states with hunter education or target range costs in excess of their regular apportionment.

Facilities suitable for international moving target shooters are in critically short supply, while those for pistol shooters are being diminished due to negative public attitudes toward the use of handguns. In most cases, the military owns and operates international facilities to which civilian shooters and even military reservists have difficulty gaining access.

Equipment also is more easily accessible to military personnel. Civilian shooters must purchase their own guns, shooting clothes, ammunition and targets; the latter two items can cost $200-$300 a month for a shotgun shooter.

Finance/Funding

A typical NRA quadrennial program of international shooting events, including estimated costs, follows.

NATIONAL RIFLE ASSOCIATION
Direct Expenses, 1972-1975

1972	Expenses for Munich Olympics[4] (unreimbursed)	$ 7,082.76
	UIT costs[5]	3,460.64
	National Championships	70,000.00 (est.)
1973	Expenses for Championship of the Americas (Mexico)[4]	30,171.24
	World Moving Target Championship (Australia)[4]	23,925.57
	Other expenses[5]	5,585.84
	National Championships	70,000.00 (est.)
1974	UIT World Shooting Championships (Switzerland)[4]	95,470.73
	Other expenses	5,987.35
	National Championships	70,000.00
1975	Pan American Games[4] (Unreimbursed)	3,795.80
	World Moving Target Championships[4] (Germany)	21,762.99
	Other expenses[5]	3,755.23
	National Championships	70,000.00
	4-year total:	$480,998.15

In addition to these special events, NRA budgets annual funds to administer a program in international shooting. The following figures in parentheses represent the percentages spent on the international shooting program; they are based on allocations to various NRA departments in 1975.

International and Shotgun Department (100% for international)	$154,309
National Competitions Department (20.9% for international)	$ 78,352
Administration (10% for international)	$ 9,207
TOTAL	$241,868

A summary of NRA income and expenses for 1975 is shown below.

Income

Members Dues	$ 6,505,800
Advertising, *The American Rifleman*	2,011,720
Interest and Dividends	994,253
Other[6]	468,528
Total	$ 9,980,301

Expenses

Administrative Division	$ 2,453,060
Competitions and Training Division	1,231,520
Public Affairs Division	1,946,031
Publications Division	3,422,843
Hunting and Conservation Division	243,302
Executive Offices	1,399,330
Office of Legislative Affairs	178,052
Loss on Sale of Common Stock	157,762
Total	$11,031,900

Net Operating Loss	$(1,051,599)

NRA's financial condition at the end of 1975 was as follows:

Assets

Current Assets	$ 2,690,101
Investments	24,042,948
Property and Equipment	2,657,144
Other Assets	56,321
Total	$29,446,514

Liabilities and Net Worth

Current Liabilities	$ 1,529,123
Deferred Income	11,370,580
Net Worth	16,546,811
Total	$29,446,514

This financial information is summarized from a report of certified public accountants.

NRA spends more dollars per capita on registered international shooters than on registered domestic shooters, yet only 6.5% of its total budget is spent on international shooting. Monies spent directly on international shooting are primarily for travel and administration; very little is spent on projects such as training or seminars. The only fund raising activity NRA conducts specifically for its international shooting program is the International Shooting Fund. Individual and corporate donations to this fund approximate a

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[4] Actual team expenditures, costs of providing officials, etc.

[5] Includes UIT dues, travel expenses of U.S. delegates to UIT meetings, subcription costs for UIT Journal.

[6] This includes USOC grants. The total for the quadrennial was $5,000.

$75-80,000 balance. Donations to the fund are not tax deductible, but the NRA will be working to change this.

Corporate

NRA has asked corporations to donate funds and/or goods and services for the international shooting program but has been refused because (1) they want to be exclusive suppliers of equipment to the team, which was a condition NRA found unacceptable, and (2) corporations fear all sports would come begging.

College Scholarship Monies

A number of colleges and universities provide assistance in the form of scholarships to rifle shooters. However, financial support and facilities vary among collegiate shooting programs. Some programs are supported by their athletic departments, others through team members' efforts to raise money. Most of the colleges or universities with top shooting programs give some financial aid to their shooters and can recruit accomplished juniors. Although colleges with a shooting program usually have some indoor facilities and equipment, a lot of this equipment and the money spent for it is wasted simply because the schools often don't have the expertise to determine what equipment is required for international programs. More international equipment and targets are needed.

DEVELOPMENT

Athletes

Development of international shooting within the national governing body is the responsibility of the International and Shotgun Department, a subdivision of NRA's Competitions and Training Division. Development and competition in domestic-style rifle and pistol are located in other NRA departments, but no other department deals with shotgun activity because NRA administers only international events in shotgun.

The National Competition Department, which is responsible primarily for the NRA domestic shooting program, keeps records of all scores shot in competitions and of all classified shooters. Of the 154,027 registered shooters, 18,638 are classified as international-style shooters.

There are approximately 8,000 NRA-affiliated clubs in the U.S., about 2,000 of which hold competitions on a regular basis. Junior clubs are required to have an NRA Certified Instructor within one year of affiliation to insure qualified instruction for juniors. Most of the training and competition at the club level is domestic-style, primarily for economic reasons since more individuals can shoot during a given period. Incentives such as subsidies will be needed if clubs are to be encouraged to convert to international style. In a first attempt at this, NRA now encourages clubs to hold "piggy back" matches for rifle and pistol (i.e., international events are fired in conjunction with national events).

Development of shooters also takes place in special programs such as summer camps or the Daisy air gun program, in colleges, or in military or police training. In 1973 NBPRP began holding a clinic for juniors at Ft. Benning to concentrate on advanced techniques of international style rifle shooting. Other junior programs include beginning qualification courses, club matches, junior state championships, high school programs and summer camp competitions. These are not oriented specifically toward international shooting, however.

The Daisy Junior Air Rifle Program runs regional domestic-style matches throughout the country, providing ammunition and rifles to juniors. The top ten competitors from each region are invited to Rodgers, Arkansas, to participate in the Daisy Air Rifle Championships.

Most collegiate teams are supported by their school's ROTC department. In most cases, one of the cadre will be assigned as coach of the rifle team, usually for one year. These individuals may know little about shooting, but cost the college nothing. One of the most critical problems resulting from this arrangement is the lack of continuity in a school's shooting program because of frequent coach changes.

The U.S. Army Marksmanship Unit (USAMU) gives many clinics during the fall and winter for college shooters. The clinics cover aspects of shooting such as positions, equipment and training, as well as provide an introduction to international-style shooting. However, many schools are not aware of these clinics.

A summer program now run by the Director of Civilian Marksmanship (DCM) could offer excellent training in international shooting for collegiate level competitors, but the program is limited to juniors (under 18). However, if the UIT definition of a junior (under 21) were used, the program could include most collegiate shooters.

It costs about $10,000 a year in expenses to train an elite-level shooter. This figure includes required clothing, firearms, targets, competition travel expenses, coaching, etc. The shotgun events are the most expensive since ammunition and target costs are higher than for other disciplines. Occasionally a civilian is sufficiently motivated to work against the obstacles and develop as a junior in clubs or college programs, to find ways to fill the void of peer-level competition and training after college, to invest the money necessary, and to develop into a world class shooter — but this is exceedingly rare. For the most part the country's most reliable source of international shooters is the Army.

The military is the only organization with a fully developed and continuous program of training and competition for international shooters. Assignment of military personnel to USAMU is based on competitive performance and outstanding soldierly traits. Each year, after the National Match, outstanding Army shooters are selected to fill USAMU vacancies, after which they are returned to their regular units as polished marksmen and instructors. USAMU-trained soldiers also are charged with discovering new talent and preparing the most skillful recruits for later service with Army-level competitive teams. Outstanding collegiate ROTC shooters are also given tryouts for assignments to USAMU.

Army shooters are provided with weapons, ammunition, and targets as necessary for their practice (about $7,000 of support annually per person). USAMU members spend four to five hours a day practicing and the more promising marksmen among them form the Army's international shooting teams. Public Law 11-90 — as discussed in the chapter on the military in Volume I of this report — gives the military authorization to send international teams abroad.

USAMU gives coaching clinics each year to Marksmanship Training Units (MTUs) in Army areas within the Continental United States. These MTUs in turn conduct clinics for military units and college ROTC units. In 1975, USAMU supported 40 clinics, while three area MTUs supported 163 clinics.

Despite the many advantages afforded military shooters, there are some problems. USAMU members do not advance as quickly in their military careers as colleagues of the same rank who have had more opportunities to acquire leadership and command experience. The military appears to believe that, particularly for career officers, MTU achievements should not be valued as highly as other activities (e.g., combat or field command). Accordingly, the career of an individual who joins a Marksmanship Training Unit may suffer. This has increasingly serious implications for the U.S. international shooting program. Division Chiefs and even present MTU shooters are discouraging talented military shooters from joining the MTU because of the detrimental effect it may have on their career advancement. Coupled with the end of the draft this perceived discrimination appears to be diminishing the numbers of top shooters applying to USAMU.

Despite the development opportunities provided international shooters by the organizations discussed above, a number of obstacles tend to hinder the development of world class shooters. At the outset exposure to the international style of shooting is hard to acquire. Although some clubs, schools, and colleges do offer international programs, many areas of the country are devoid.

In any case, whether the individual is introduced to the international style early or later in his development, he or she soon learns that domestic-style competition is easier to shoot and can result in perfect scores. (Perfect scores are practically unattainable in international competition; when they are attained UIT generally changes the rules to toughen the competition.) With perfect scores and money prizes as lures, a shooter may abandon the international discipline to pursue domestic-style development. If he or she chooses instead to continue in international shooting, he or she mjst contend with the lack of UIT regulation facilities, of qualified coaches, and of regular competition.

Even assuming that despite these obstacles the individual is dedicated to achieving excellence in international shooting, the moment arrives when the shooter is on the verge of achieving world class stature. Since world caliber shooters most often peak in their late 20s and early 30s, they are at the elite level of training just at the age when family and job responsibilities can be very demanding.

One way out of the bind is to join the military, in which a shooter may, in essence, be subsidized while training; or the military reserve, which offers some benefits in terms of equipment and training opportunities. On the other hand, the shooter may continue as a civilian, sacrificing time with family or on the job, to say nothing of spending significant amounts of money on equipment and travel in order to train and compete. These individuals, who have continued to train, despite the obstacles, are the core of our international shooting teams. The civilians among them remain at a considerable disadvantage compared to leading world shooters subsidized by other countries who are able to train four to five hours every day.

Coaches

There are only two salaried international coaches in the country, both hired by the Department of Defense to teach marksmanship to elite military shooters. Most other coaches of international shooting serve without pay.

Coaches currently are taught domestic-style techniques in NRA courses. Although coaching techniques are basically the same for both domestic and international styles, these coaches' training clinics generally provide no exposure to or training for international rules of competition. NRA's Educational Training Department conducts competition and instructor training activities, including standard courses of instruction and instructor certification. In 1975-1976, coaching schools were offered by NRA-certified instructors in rifle, pistol and shotgun. In 1975, 30,496 persons graduated from 3,269 courses. Plans are underway for competitor and instructor training in international shooting.

For the Olympic Games, IOC and UIT regulations specify that only a team manager and an assistant may accompany the shooting team. However, NRA paid for four coaches to go to both the 1968 and 1972 Games; they were not allowed on the firing range, but were able to observe and talk with shooters after training or competition.

Officials

The NRA sponsors courses for the development of international officials on behalf of UIT. UIT limits the number of international officials that any country may certify; in part because so few are ever used. Only 37 Class A judges (qualified to judge at all international competitions) are used at the World Championships and 32 at the Olympics. Certified officials are not required to judge at meets where world records are not recorded.

To be certified in the U.S. as an international judge, a candidate must speak at least one foreign language, have shooting experience at the national level of competition, and have experience in organizing and officiating at NRA meets. Judges' licenses are issued to accepted applicants and must be renewed every eight years.

Media

Shooting competition gets very little coverage on national television or in newspapers with national or regional circulation. For example, U.S. shooters won 14 of 18 possible medals in the 1975 Pan American Games, but received virtually no national coverage.

Even NRA does not adequately educate its own members about the international shooting sports. The *American Marksman* is the only NRA publication that consistently covers international shooting. Essentially, it reports events and meet results; it does not address issues of concern to shooters, such as rules of competition and eligibility or various events and policies in international shooting. Other NRA publications highlight additional areas of NRA interest and activity such as conservation, hunting, wild life cooking, etc.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

NRA does a poor job of communicating to athletes what the international rules of amateur eligibility are and how they are interpreted by the NRA. While the NCAA devotes over 50 pages in its rulebook to hypothetical situations involving athlete eligibility and the NCAA's application of rules in each case, the NRA has refused in the past to review any pending cases so that the individual involved could decide whether his contemplated actions would violate rules of amateurism. This has had unfortunate results; since UIT rules are ambiguous and vaguely worded, some shooters either have inadvertently violated them or have assumed they had when in fact they had not. NRA only determines eligibility after an individual has done something which might be in violation of the rules. In effect, no action is taken until someone challenges a shooter's amateur status or until he/she becomes a member of the international team and requires certification by NRA that he/she is an amateur under UIT rules.

Nearly all shooters start out being trained in domestic rules of competition, since it is easier to learn the sport under these rules than under international rules. Thus, the critical point in development of most international shooters is their conversion from domestic to international shooting.

In the early 1970s, all college shooting programs affiliated with NRA and DCM (Director of Civilian Marksmanship) were directed to phase in an all international-style training program. This has not been accomplished completely, although progress has been substantial. Two of the reasons for some institutions lagging behind in the conversion are that they don't want to ruin their team averages with lower scores that result from shooting under international rules and that the NCAA and other college associations don't require it.

Domestic Competition

Most shooting competition in the United States is conducted under domestic rules. Money or gift prizes often are awarded to winners of these matches, particularly shotgun matches. Shooters who compete in their prize matches may win up to $340 per tournament and still retain their amateur eligibility under UIT rules.

U.S. competition in international-style shooting is limited. In 1975 only 820 of 3,906 NRA-sanctioned tournaments were international. Entries in these international-style tourneys numbered 14,865. Primary sources of this kind of shooting are piggyback matches sponsored by NRA clubs, military-sponsored competitions, NSSA/USFIMTS club matches (some of which are conducted under international rules), college competitions and some high school matches. These are all shoulder-to-shoulder (as opposed to postal) matches. Some NRA postal matches are conducted under international rules.

International Competition

U.S. shooters are eligible to compete in the Olympic Games, the Pan American Games and the World Shooting Championships, all held every four years on a staggered basis. In addition, there are the Confederation of the Americas Shooting Championships, World Shooting Championships, and the World Moving Target Championships. The Benito Juarez Games are actually the national games of Mexico, but the U.S. traditionally has been invited to send competitors.

Of these competitions, there are separate women's events only in the World Shooting Championships and the Benito Juarez Games. Junior shooters have separate events only in the latter; there are no Junior World Shooting Championships or other international competitions in which they may participate.

In 1970 NRA organized and conducted the 40th UIT World Shooting Championships in Phoenix, Arizona, spending almost one million dollars.

Travelling to competitions poses a serious problem for all shooters because of Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) regulations concerning transport of ammunition. These rules are inconsistent, in that the FAA allows a maximum of 50 pounds of explosives, and a maximum of 50 pounds of small arms ammunition, even though the latter contains only one pound of explosives. Whenever a shooting team is traveling, special arrangements and dispensations must be made.

Team Selection

NRA's International and Shotgun Department is responsible for planning and promoting preliminary tryouts, for conducting the U.S. International Championships and for holding final tryouts for international teams.

Teams for international competition are selected on the basis of one shoot, rather than on the basis of regional (or zonal) championships as eliminating meets. While this method has the advantage of testing all competitors under the identical conditions (i.e., light, wind, temperature, etc.), simulating the one-time only competition at the Olympics or other Championship, it has the disadvantage of not testing for consistency, stability under high pressure, ability to shoot under many different conditions, or experience. Every year, a national team is selected on the basis of the U.S. Championships. From this team, the Olympic or other international teams are picked. All contenders for these teams must meet certain qualifying standards in order to try out.

The U.S. National/International Championships are open to all civilians (men and women) and military personnel on an equal basis. However, the military reserves the option to send whomever it chooses to the trials.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

While the U.S. succeeds in international competitions, it does so through the talents and training of a small group of top shooters, many of whom have been in two or three Olympics and most of whom are trained by the military. Few new competitors have moved up the ranks to challenge and replace the veterans, although programs in international shooting appear to be growing. However, participants in these programs are relatively young, and it will be several years before they develop into World Class Shooters, assuming they pursue the sport. If present trends continue (wherein fewer top shooters join the army marksmanship unit and costs for civilian shooters remain both high and variable based on amount of training), there is some question as to whether or not replacements for retired champions will immediately be able to compete as successfully.

The sport's problems include:

- Lack of international-style facilities: The lack of facilities meeting international specifications is particularly apparent in the moving target events, although international rifle and pistol shooters suffer somewhat from unavailability or inaccessibility of international facilities. Greater and more concentrated stimulus for constructing, equipping, and/or operating international-style facilities — from NRA, its member organizations, the military or the states (e.g., through Karth-Dingell monies) — would have a significant and rapid payoff. Through leadership, technical assistance or subsidy, these groups could encourage both wider use of existing ranges and development of new ones. The NRA-planned national shooting center, with range facilities for all international disciplines, will be of significant benefit to the U.S. effort, particularly at the elite levels. This Center is currently under construction in Raton, New Mexico, but may not be completed in 1979 as scheduled, partly due to simultaneous construction of a new NRA headquarters building in Colorado Springs, Colorado.

- Lack of international-style training: At a minimum, junior shooters require exposure to international rules, skills, targets and equipment during early training if they are to develop at the greatest practical pace. Since the NRA and DCM are the major organizations developing civilian shooters, cooperation between them designed to stimulate, support and integrate international-style programs at the local level would seem an effective solution.

- Training manuals and coaches' certification courses are deficient in that they do not include sections on international-style shooting. There are very few (under 10) coaches who have been trained to teach international-style shooting and who are also skilled at working with all levels of shooters, particularly those who are advanced or highly motivated. As resources permit, a program in which paid national coaches work with national team members and other coaches would significantly benefit the country's efforts in international competition.

- Lack of opportunities for civilian shooters: Without substantial means (personal wealth or some form of subsidy) a civilian is at a severe disadvantage in attempting to become a world class shooter. A shooter spends money (on ammunition, targets, and user fees) every time he or she trains. An adequately financed national team would partially solve the problem, as would making ammunition, firearms and other equipment more widely available to proven talents through contributions, federal subsidy, etc. If more qualified civilian coaches were available to collegiate rifle teams, collegiate shooting would be tremendously improved. As an alternative, ROTC coaches and their students would benefit from training in international-style shooting.

- Management: NRA does a creditable job of governing U.S. shooting, although greater efforts in promoting and supporting international shooting would be helpful in stimulating local international-style programs. NRA and member international competitors have disagreed over some NRA policies and practices. Some of the differences have been resolved; NRA recently has made additions to the staff and budget of its International Shotgun Department and has restructured its committees to be more responsive to shooters.

  An NRA development plan for international shooters, which provided for coordinating activities now underway at the local level, would be helpful to organizations now involved in shooting programs. An adjunct would be expanded communications system, using meetings, newsletters and magazines to promote international shooting. Given the maturity and experience of most successful international-style shooters, their newly increased representation on NRA policy-making bodies may be expected to strengthen their voice in deciding on competition rules, team leaders, selection methods and UIT members.

- Public perception of the sport: The sport of shooting inevitably, though indirectly, suffers when firearms are condemned as instruments of crime. It continues to be necessary for shooters to make very clear to the public that they are solely sports-people, and that shooting is as meritorious an endeavor as sailing, riding or fencing.

- Lack of media exposure: Adding to the public perception problem is the fact that shooting has definite limitations as a spectator sport. By comparison even with other so-called minor sports, shooting receives little attention from the media. Development of scoring and reporting techniques which are more attractive to television, the print media and the viewing public is necessary if the broader public interest is to be captured.

SKIING

American TV audiences thrilled to the sight of Cindy Nelson's grim determination as she sped down the gruelling course on her way to winning the country's only alpine skiing medal in the 1976 Winter Olympics — a Bronze in the downhill event. The same week on TV, audiences saw another national ski team member, Gail Blackburn, stop in front of the camera, toss her long, golden hair and extoll the virtues of a well-known shampoo. At any other time, the viewer might reasonably have thought she had forfeited any chance of skiing in the Olympics. In fact, only eight years before, the International Olympic Committee barred the great Austrian skier Karl Schranz from the 1968 Games for commercialism. But times have changed.

The IOC now permits "broken-time payments" to athletes for time away from work for training and competition. This revolution in the rules of amateurism has been most liberally interpreted by the Fédération Internationale de Ski (FIS), which now allows endorsements of commercial products as long as such agreements are approved and administered by the national governing body and all financial benefits go into the national organization's treasury. As a result, ski team members can be featured in national advertising without fear of losing their amateur status.

Capitalizing on the large popular interest and involvement of more than six million recreational skiers and aided by a strong organization, the U.S. Ski Association (USSA) and its affiliated body, the U.S. Ski Team, Inc. (USST), have been able to enlist dozens of domestic and foreign manufacturers as sponsors to supply thousands of dollars in money and equipment for national team use. In the 1976 fiscal year alone, the 100-member U.S. Ski Team had a budget exceeding $1 million.

By translating commercial interests into training dollars, USST offers top national skiers complete training subsidies, room and board, travel expenses, and, increasingly, broken-time payments as allowed by international regulations. This is the only way many athletes could afford to compete at the national and international level in this very expensive sport.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

Of the two types of skiing on the Winter Olympic schedule, Nordic skiing in the U.S. has been the abandoned stepchild while alpine skiing is healthy and blooming. In terms of participation base, success in fund raising, development and grass roots programs, competitive schedule and international success, downhill racers are far ahead of their cross-country compatriots, and of athletes in most other sports as well. Only very recently have greater development efforts begun to reap some success in Nordic skiing.

Major problems of the sport in this country include:

- — High cost of entry and participation;
- — Lack of ski jumping facilities;
- — Lack of year-round training facilities for both alpine and Nordic events;
- — Underdeveloped grass roots programs, especially in coaching and Nordic events; and
- — inadequate funding to maintain development programs below the national team level.

Events in International Competition

Olympic skiing competition includes three alpine events for men and women: downhill and slalom, added to the schedule in 1948; and giant slalom, added in 1952. Skiers race on set downhill courses, either following the straightest path of descent or zigzagging between sets of poles or "gates."

Men's Nordic skiing dates from the first Winter Games in 1924. Only four events were held initially, but three more have been added since. The seven events for men and their dates of entry are:

- 15 km cross-country (1924),
- 30 km cross-country (1956),
- 50 km cross-country (1924),
- 40 km cross-country relay (1936),
- Nordic combined — 15 km cross-country and ski jumping (1924),
- 70-meter ski jumping (1964), and
- 90-meter ski jumping (1924).

Nordic skiing for women in the Olympics started with a single event in 1952. Two more events have been added since:

- 5 km cross-country (1964),
- 10 km cross-country (1952), and
- 15 km cross-country relay (1956).

Team size for the Olympic Games varies depending on the number of events for which a single skier may qualify, but the maximum number of skiers allowed per country is 14 men and 14 women for alpine events, and 20 men and six women for Nordic events.

History of World Ranking

United States skiers traditionally have fared well in international alpine competitions, but usually finish far down the list in Nordic events. Since 1948 U.S. alpine skiers have won four Gold Medals (all in women's events), five Silver (four women, one man), and four Bronze (three women, one man) in Olympic competition. U.S. Nordic skiers, on the other hand, have won only two medals in the 52 years of Winter Olympic history:

- a Bronze Medal in the 1924 ski jumping event (awarded in 1974 after discovery of an error in the original computations), and
- a Silver Medal in the 1976 men's 30 km cross-country race.

In FIS alpine World Championships, held every four years midway between the Winter Olympic Games, the U.S. consistently has finishers among the top six, but only once (1970) has a U.S. skier won the combined title (overall champion for all three events). Conversely, American Nordic skiers seldom have broken into the top ten in FIS Nordic World Championships, generally placing from fifteenth to twenty-fifth. Team size for various alpine and Nordic competitions varies, but is usually held to four racers per event from each country.

Present World Standing

In the 1976 Olympics, U.S. alpine skiers won one medal, a Bronze in the women's downhill event, but eight other American athletes finished among the top 12 in their events.

In the 1976 World Cup, U.S. men alpine skiers made one of their strongest team showings ever, finishing seventh and eighth in the slalom and sixth and tenth in the giant slalom. U.S. women were seventh in the downhill and sixth in the giant slalom. The U.S. World Cup team's 359 points, good enough for a sixth place finish, was the highest U.S. score since 1972. Nine U.S. alpine skiers were rated in the top seeding (the first 15 skiers in each event) for the 1977 World Cup, the greatest number ever for the U.S. Ski Team. The most successful countries in 1976 alpine skiing included Austria, Italy, West Germany, France, Switzerland, Canada and the U.S.

Bill Koch ended a half-century shutout for American Nordic skiers in Olympic competition by capturing a Silver Medal in the men's 30km cross-country race at Innsbruck. By placing a strong sixth in the men's 15km race, thirteenth in the 50km event, and skiing the second fastest leg in the 40km relay, Koch had the best overall performance of any world competitor. United States Nordic skiers had their most successful year ever in other theaters as well, breaking into the medal column with second and third place finishes in several major cross-country races. Nordic skiing powers in 1976 included the USSR, Finland, Sweden, Norway, East and West Germany, Czechoslovakia and Switzerland.

ORGANIZATION

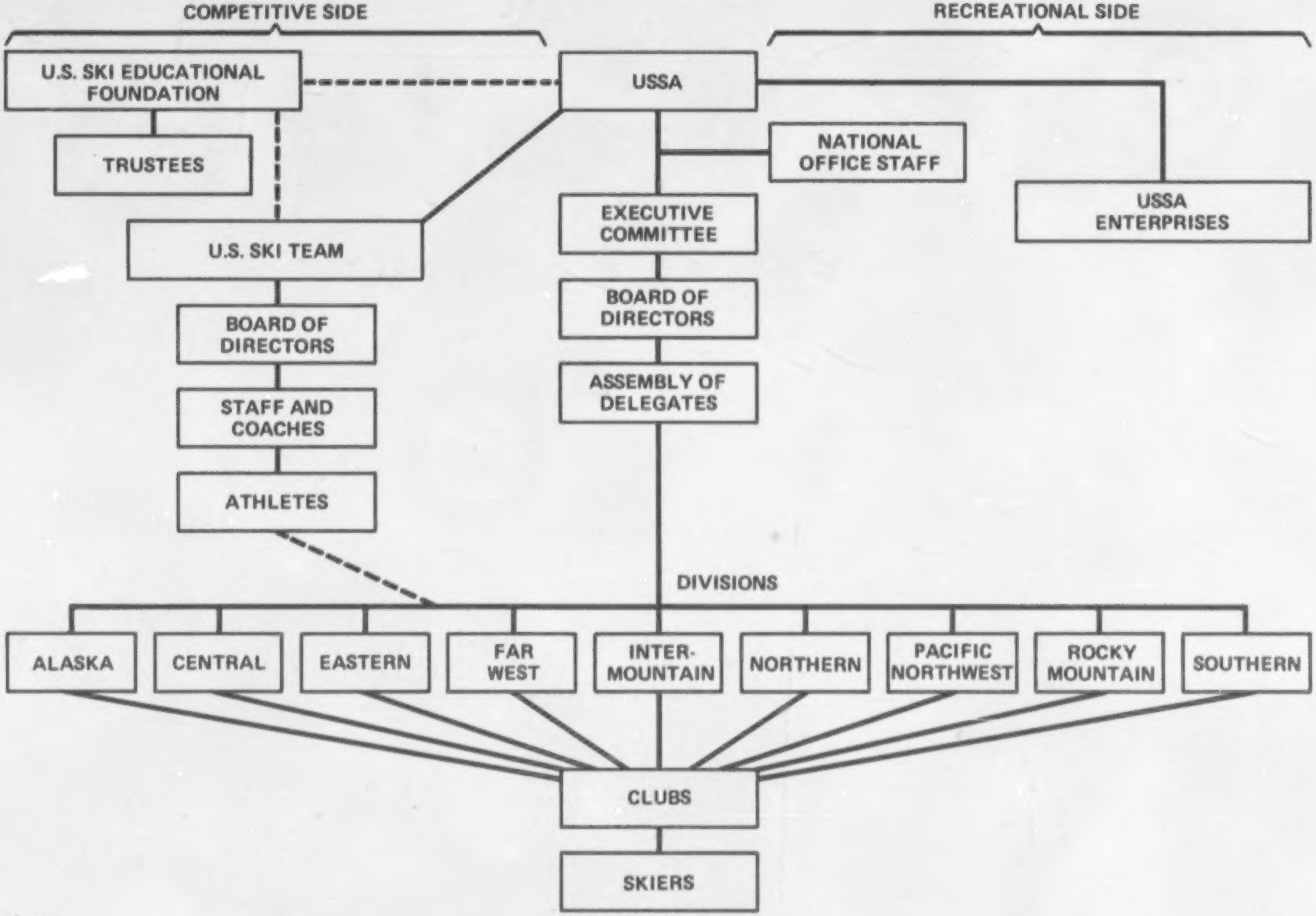
National Governing Body

Founded in 1904 as the National Ski Association, the U.S. Ski Association (USSA) had 103,723 members in 1975-1976 representative of every state in the union.

USSA has been recognized by FIS since 1926 as the international franchise holder for U.S. skiing. A non-profit corporation which sanctions amateur skiing, USSA organizes national programs for recreational skiers and sponsors ski-related public affairs programs. Although skiing has avoided the jurisdictional rivalries produced by competing organizations in some other sports, within the last decade USSA has found it beneficial to spin off

U.S. SKI ASSOCIATION

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART


COMPETITIVE SIDE
RECREATIONAL SIDE
U.S. SKI EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATION
USSA
TRUSTEES
NATIONAL OFFICE STAFF
USSA ENTERPRISES
U.S. SKI TEAM
EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
BOARD OF DIRECTORS
BOARD OF DIRECTORS
STAFF AND COACHES
ASSEMBLY OF DELEGATES
ATHLETES
DIVISIONS
ALASKA
CENTRAL
EASTERN
FAR WEST
INTER-MOUNTAIN
NORTHERN
PACIFIC NORTHWEST
ROCKY MOUNTAIN
SOUTHERN
CLUBS
SKIERS

three subsidiary groups, more accurately reflecting the split between recreational and competitive aspects of the sport. (See organization chart.)

The U.S. Ski Team, Inc. (USST) is a wholly-owned subsidiary of USSA, incorporated as a taxable business. USST manages the national ski team as well as commercial revenues from ski team activities.

The U.S. Ski Educational Foundation, Inc. (USSEF) is a tax-exempt foundation which solicits contributions for the Ski Team and other athlete development programs. It manages Ski Team activities in trust for USSA.

USSA Enterprises, Inc., another wholly-owned subsidiary incorporated as a taxable business, handles all non-ski team commercial and merchandising programs. USSA and USSA Enterprises are headquartered in Denver, Colorado.

Both USST and USSEF have been highly successful in developing the nation's top skiing talent and in covering the costs of sending qualified teams abroad. As the franchise holder, however, USSA still has final authority over these matters and annually reviews its special chartering agreement with USST. Conceivably, USSA could revoke the arrangement at any time.

Such a move generally would be viewed as catastrophic and possibly suicidal: it could bring to a screeching halt the Ski Team development program, it could render void all existing commercial contracts between the Ski Team and the major businesses underwriting the costs of the national program (see Exhibit I), and it could even produce open warfare between certain groups of skiers — certainly pitting USSEF, the Ski Team's fund-raising arm, against USSA. Even the threat (actual or implied) of revoking the charter can and has produced an unsettling effect on the Ski Team program and its long range efforts. Several possible courses of action to alleviate this inherent conflict will be discussed in the conclusions.

USSA's Board of Directors is composed of a president, first vice-president, a secretary-treasurer, nine vice-presidents (one elected from each regional division), and 22 directors (apportioned to the divisions according to their membership). The Board has at least three meetings a year, one before and one after USSA's annual convention in late spring. Other meetings are set at a time and place decided by the directors. An executive committee consists of the three officers and the nine divisional vice-presidents. Each division has only one vote in executive committee deliberations. Actions of the committee are subject to approval of the full board at the next meeting or by mail vote.

USSA officers are elected annually by the Assembly of Delegates. No individual may serve more than four consecutive one-year terms in the three principal offices. Delegates to the convention are elected by their respective divisions, the number of delegates proportionate to the membership of the divisions. The immediate past president of the association, the director of the National Ski Patrol System, and the representatives to the FIS and the USOC serve as ex-officio members of the board. There are no current or recently competing world-class athletes on the board or executive committee, although most members are active recreational skiers.

In 1974 USST and USSEF moved from Denver to Park City, Utah, the national training center for the Ski Team. USST has four officers, four additional directors and a full-time general manager, plus a staff of program directors, coaches and secretaries. Board members are selected by a nominating committee and serve one-year terms. USSEF is managed by three officers and 22 trustees who serve three-year terms. Several persons hold overlapping directorships in USSA, USST and USSEF.

USSA has 40 standing and special committees and subcommittees that handle much of the association's business. Generally, each of the nine USSA regional associations elects a representative to each committee. The nine divisions include: Alaska, Central, Eastern Ski Association, Far West Ski Association, Intermountain, Northern, Pacific Northwest, Rocky Mountain, and Southern. Each division supports club programs and other ski activities within its region. The divisions have an elected governing board and officers, representing member ski clubs, to direct their affairs. Most divisions have an office and full-time staff members.

Major Programs of USSA and its organizations are:

- Developing and training competitive skiers;
- Selecting and fielding ski teams for national and international competition;
- Developing and sponsoring programs for recreational skiers;
- Promoting public interest in skiing;
- Sponsoring ski safety programs and publishing ski education and training materials;
- Training and certifying ski officials;
- Maintaining a Skiing Hall of Fame; and
- Raising funds to support these programs.

USSA goals supportive of these programs are:

- To increase its membership by encouraging the formation of ski clubs and divisional associations;

- To provide more benefits for members, such as more comprehensive and lower-cost insurance, more ski charter flights and group discounts;
- To standardize rules governing ski events and to maintain eligibility standards among skiers;
- To serve the needs of the skiing public for recreation and to promote skiing as a life-time sport;
- To improve development and safety programs at the grass-roots level; and
- To increase the funds available to all programs.

Other Major Skiing Organizations

More than 600 prep schools and high schools and more than 80 colleges and universities have skiing programs. (The school/college community per se does not hold membership in USSA which is a club-based organization.) In addition, organizations such as the National Ski Patrol System, the American Ski Federation, the National Ski Areas Association, Ski Industries America, and the Professional Ski Instructors of America cater to various aspects of the sport in this country.

The Professional Ski Instructors of America (PSIA), begun in 1962 and composed of eight autonomous divisions, trains and certifies the nation's 10,500 active ski instructors. Certification signifies an individual is technically competent to teach racing skills and has demonstrated an expert skiing ability. Accredited instructors must attend review clinics every three years to maintain their credentials. PSIA is working to standardize teaching techniques throughout the country.

A U.S. Ski Coaches Association Journal recently has been published for the nation's estimated 2,000 ski coaches, but there is no national association formed as yet for ski coaches. Four USSA divisions, however, have active coaches associations which provide regular coaching clinics and other services, but do not certify the skill levels of their members.

The National Ski Patrol, founded in 1938, is organized into nine divisions matching those in USSA, and has more than 24,000 members who patrol ski areas on a volunteer or paid basis, rescuing and giving first-aid treatment to injured skiers. The patrol also is involved in other ski safety programs such as avalanche control.

All ski-related organizations have a fairly close working relationship with USSA. The Ski Patrol, PSIA, and USSA have their national offices in the same building.

Relationship with the International Federation

USSA was one of the early members of FIS and has achieved considerable influence through its elected delegates to the FIS biennial congress. Fifteen U.S. representatives serve on various FIS technical and rules committees which meet at least at every other congress. USSA assists the three official U.S. delegates to meet travel expenses for the conferences, but committee members must pay their own expenses. USSA members hold influential positions as vice president of the FIS officers' council and as chairmen of the ski jumping and alpine committees.

RESOURCES

Personnel

USSA's support office in Denver, Colorado, has three full-time staff members. The U.S. Ski Team, headquartered in Park City, Utah, has 12 staff members including a general manager and several program directors. Six of the nine divisions of USSA have full-time offices with up to 12 staff members, two have part-time employees and one has no paid staff.

Most coaches and instructors are former recreational or competitive skiers. The U.S. Ski Team employs up to 14 coaches and managers and many top European alpine coaches and instructors are attracted to the U.S. because of the higher wage scale. However, there is still a dearth of qualified Nordic coaches in this country.

Ski clubs within USSA divisions, educational institutions with ski programs, and ski areas sponsoring competitive teams are likely to have paid part-time or full-time coaches. Some club coaching is done on a voluntary basis. Additionally, some 10,500 instructors give beginning and recreational lessons at commercial ski areas.

Certified ski race officials, including technical delegates, chiefs of course, judges and timers, number some 700 and are drawn from the ranks of the millions of recreational skiers. Approximately 50 U.S. officials are accredited to officiate at international meets. Seminars and clinics for the recruiting, training and upgrading of ski officials take place regularly at the division level with USSA support. Moreover, the U.S. Ski Patrol System, primarily concerned with ski safety programs, also provides a ready-made pool of race officials and judges.

Facilities/Equipment

Almost every state — some 40 in number — which has any snowfall during the winter has ski areas. A few areas are lighted for night-time use, while some of the smaller areas use artificial snow-making machines to build up the base of the snow, extending the season. Approximately 750 ski areas in the U.S. have improved trails and tows or lifts open to the public. However, the boom in ski area development has been declining, mirroring the upward spiral of construction costs and the decline in toll-paying recreational skiers. Roughly 40 new areas were opened between 1972 and 1976, compared with 50 to 60 in each of the previous quadrennials.

Even the most basic ski areas — a few trails, a warming/dining lodge, two or three lifts, access roads, parking and support facilities — are multimillion dollar developments. Industry sources estimate that the cost of investment for ski areas can vary widely depending on size, location, and other variables; however, a rule of thumb would be between $1,500 and $2,000 per skier capacity. Ski areas may accommodate anywhere from 500 to 10,000 skiers a day.

Other operational difficulties arise from leasing U.S. Forest Service land for some ski area use. Since permits for these lands are renewed annually, it is sometimes difficult to interest banks or other potential investors with such short-term leases, especially when lifts and other associated capital investments have a 30-year or longer amortization period. In addition, operators of ski areas incorporating Forest Service lands must get a permit and have an inspection any time they want to put on a special event such as a ski race. Permits also must be obtained for any new trail or expansion. Furthermore, the Forest Service dictates the prices operators may charge for lift tickets and takes a graduated percentage of the gross receipts.

Although interest in alpine skiing has levelled off, cross-country skiing and ski touring have experienced a burst of popularity. Cross-country skiing can be done on almost any snowy patch of ground and is taking hold as a relatively inexpensive family hobby. No lift tickets are needed, equipment is less expensive and fashion-plate togs are unnecessary. The oldest and youngest members of the family can usually keep pace. Nevertheless, few areas are designated as permanent Nordic sites or have appropriate snow-packing and trail-making equipment available.

The U.S. has only 12 major ski jump facilities with 70m or larger hills and most of them are obsolete by international standards. The U.S. has another 15 smaller hills for ski jumping, plus a new ski flying (120m) hill at Iron Mountain, Michigan, used for infrequent competitions. Only one jump hill (in Squaw Valley, California, the site of the 1960 Olympics) has a training complex with 40m, 70m and 90m jumps. That site went unused and unrepaired for nearly a decade and a half because no money was available to maintain it; only lately has it seen some use. New 70m and 90m hills are projected for Lake Placid, New York, site of the 1980 Winter Games.

Plastic jump hills, which provide year-round training and call for little or no course maintenance, are beginning to be built in this country for shorter (up to 55m) jumps. Plastic trails and hills are being used also for cross-country and free-style skiing practice, but the cost is extremely high. The current "national" training center at Park City, Utah, does not yet have the necessary facilities to meet the needs of the national teams. Thus, in spite of good dormitory and administrative space, it is a training center in name only.

Generally, most ski areas in the snow-belt states are open from early December until late March, while summer skiing is limited primarily to a few glaciers in Colorado, Oregon and Washington. A few upper snow regions in these states and in Alaska could be developed for year-round use.

Although ski equipment is a multi-million dollar industry in the U.S., research and development of experimental racing skis has been left to the major European manufacturers. Moreover, most competition cross-country skis are produced in Europe since the market here is relatively small. Racing skis cost upward of $200 — $300. Boots and poles combined can run to more than $150, while ski apparel — including parkas, stretch pants, socks, sweaters, hats, insulated gloves, goggles, warmup suits — can come to $400 — $500. Nordic skis and equipment run considerably less; a full outfit costs about $120, although competitive skis may cost as much as $200.

At the top level, USST pays all major costs incurred by team members, both alpine and Nordic (some 100 skiers plus coaching staff). These expenses include training costs such as coaching and lift tickets; travel for training and competition in North America and Europe; room and board while training, if away from home; broken-time payments; and equipment, which comes from a pool provided by various domestic and foreign manufacturers.

Racers not on the national team must foot equipment bills in excess of $500 — $700 a year in addition to coaching costs, travel, membership dues, competition fees, lift tickets, room and board, insurance and other associated costs. (Lift tickets alone can run $8 — $12 or higher a day, although weekly, monthly or seasonal passes can reduce average daily rates.) Some larger clubs and the USSA divisions do have funds to help defray costs for some competitive skiers, and group discounts also are available at many ski areas.

Coaches often are paid from club funds, although some coaching is voluntary. Expenses incurred by officials sometimes are paid by clubs or ski areas hosting competitions, sometimes paid in kind (such as free lift tickets or discounts), and sometimes absorbed by the individual official.

Funding

Actual expenditures by USSA and USST for the fiscal year ending April 30, 1976, came to $1.3 million. Nearly half of these monies came from the U.S. Ski Educational Foundation, Inc., the fund-raising arm of USSA. Separate records are kept for USSA and USSEF.

USSA's assets totalled $290,180 on April 30, 1976.

FINANCIAL STATEMENTS OF USSA AND ITS SUBSIDIARIES FOR FISCAL 1976

Deficit at beginning of year		$ 114,169
Income:		
Commercial programs		$ 395,093
Grants from USSEF grants		561,037
Membership dues		92,926
USOC grants		82,654
Contributions from Ski Industries America		40,000
Broken-time payments from ski manufacturers		47,225
Alpine, recreational and other programs		84,245
Competition fees		3,151
Miscellaneous		62,988
	Total	$1,369,319
Expenses:		
Administrative		$ 568,425
Development and Competitions		
Alpine program		434,756
Nordic program		248,976
Other		126,887
Sports Facilities		—0—
	Total	$1,379,044
Deficit at end of year		$ 123,894

Similarly, the U.S. Ski Educational Foundation, Inc., showed current assets, property, and pledges of $511,219 on April 30, 1976.

U.S. SKI EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATION, INC. 1976 REVENUES AND EXPENDITURES

Fund balance at beginning of year		$ 202,978
Income:		
Contributions and pledges		$ 780,459
Other		18,608
	Total	$ 799,067
Expenses:		
Administrative and Fund raising		207,238
Development and Competitions		
U.S. Ski Team		561,037
Other		4,610
Facilities		30,242
	Total	$ 803,127
Fund balance at end of year		$ 198,918

In 1976, under commercial sponsorship contracts in excess of $300,000, more than a dozen corporations underwrote the cost of various USST programs. In addition, some 23 manufacturers donated a continuing supply of custom-made ski equipment and repair service to the Ski Team on a need basis, plus $125,000 in cash, in exchange for endorsement rights. (See Exhibit I on following pages). A series of ski balls, ski luncheons and celebrity ski weekends have been good money raisers, as has a "Five for five" program eliciting pledges of annual $5,000 donations for five years. A gold pass program gives lift passes for a year at 200 ski areas around the country to those who donate $1,500 to the Ski Team.

Additional funds for skiing come from the USOC. In 1976, these grants came to $24,000 for development, $30,000 for team preparation and $40,000 for trials and extended team training. Total USOC grants for the quadrennial period 1973-1976 came to $161,000. The USOC also paid all travel, uniform, and housing costs for the 1976 U.S. Olympic Ski Team.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

Skiers come from all parts of the country although some have to migrate to neighboring areas to find snow. An estimated six million persons put on skis at least once a year, of which some two million are ski touring and cross-country skiers who never visit a packed slope ski area and never buy a lift ticket. On the competitive side, approximately 12,000 registered skiers take part in junior and senior ski races each year. This number swells considerably when adult or veteran racers are included. However, the base of classified Nordic skiers is small indeed, about 2,000 cross-country skiers and fewer than 500 jumpers. Skiing is one of the few sports that appeals fairly equally to men and women, a fact reflected in the relatively even participation figures.

Skiing is an expensive undertaking, requiring sufficient income to afford the rental or purchase of equipment, lift fees, lessons, and travel costs. Serious alpine skiers who spend more than an occasional holiday or weekend on the slopes are generally from families with middle to high in-comes who live near ski areas. Cross-country skiing, on the other hand, is taking on a wider income-class appeal due to its lower participation costs.

USSA membership reached a peak of 132,436 in 1970-71, declined through 1974-75, and began to pick up again in 1975-76, when it reached 103,723. Rising costs for equipment and lift tickets, gasoline shortages, and the lure of unstructured cross-country skiing all have contributed to this drop in membership. In addition, more high schools and colleges are dropping their skiing programs because of the need to reduce athletic budgets. Although there is some overlap in the figures, the most recent skiing participation statistics are shown below:

Athlete Development

Most young people are introduced to skiing either on a family vacation or on a school or club excursion. Those interested in competition then will join a school or local ski club which can provide discount rates for ski trips and lift tickets, special insurance premiums, and coaching. In this manner, athletes progress from local competition to regional and national meets. Once competitors reach national competition, they can be selected (on the basis of earned competitive points) for the U.S. Ski Team.

	Institutions	Men	Institutions	Women
High Schools				
NFSHSA (1974)	631	11,584	215	7,341
Colleges				
NCAA (1971-72)				
Varsity teams	69	1,089	22	235
Intramurals	42	2,206	20	649
Phys. Ed. Classes	100	11,316	86	8,170
Recreational Clubs	70	5,290	18	262
NAIA (1975-76) Figures Not Available				
NJCAA (1975-76)				
Varsity teams	17	328	9	194
Intramurals	--	1,518	--	1,072
Phys. Ed. Classes	--	6,912	--	5,066
AIAW (1975-76)	--	--	32	320 (est)

The U.S. Ski Team, with about 100 alpine and Nordic skiers, is one of only two continuous U.S. national amateur teams (the other is the U.S. Equestrian Team). Alpine members are divided into "A", "B", "C", and Development Team athletes. The first two categories are for international competition, the third for North American ski races and the fourth is for top divisional talent. Nordic skiers are selected for Red, White and Blue (development) Teams by discipline: cross-country, Nordic combined, and ski jumping. Skiers are added to or dropped from the teams throughout the year, depending upon performance.

Training is year-round. For example, in 1976, alpine team members met in June for snow training at Mt. Hood, Oregon. In August, the men's team left for three weeks of summer skiing in Chile, while the women's team met in Aspen for dry land practice. Both teams had snow (glacier) training in Bend, Oregon, in late August. In September-October, the alpine team departed for Europe for snow and dry land training. In November, it was back in the U.S. for snow camp training. The competitive circuit began in Europe in late November. Home for Christmas. Starting off 1977, it's Europe in January. Home again in February for the National Championships. Japan late in February for World Cup races. U.S. World Cup races in March. Europe again in late March for the final World Cup races. Then home again in April for the national spring series.

The Nordic team's pace is not quite as hectic, but involves year-round snow or dry land practice. Ski jumpers practice on plastic jumps in the summertime. USST invests between $10,000 and $15,000 annually per ski team member for training and competition.

In addition to having expenses covered, national team skiers are eligible to receive broken time payments while in training, which can run from $500 to $5,000 a year. Academic scholarships are available for ski team members to allow them to finish their college education when they are through with competition (few are successful at combining training and going to school). Despite the glamour and attraction of the sport, there is still a fairly high turnover in the national team, partly due to injuries, but also because skiers and coaches tire of the nomadic life-style which requires them to be away from home many months each year.

Coach Development

Ski instructors and coaches are drawn from the ranks of recreational and competitive skiers. Some 6,500 certified instructors and 4,000 trainees teach beginning and recreational skiers at more than 700 ski schools around the country, most of which are affiliated with a particular ski resort, but some of which travel from area to area. For most of the more than 10,500 instructors, this is only part-time, seasonal work; only an estimated 500 instructors have year-round employment as area managers, or in clearing and constructing new or expanded runs.

On the other hand, ski coaches who train competitive skiers usually are allied with a ski club or an athletic department in a school or university. There were approximately 136 ski coaches in the major universities in 1971-72; that number since has declined because rising expenses have forced many schools to drop skiing as a varsity program.

Training, accreditation and periodic review of instructors comes primarily under the aegis of the Professional Ski Instructors of America. Many ski schools also have their own training and refresher sessions for instructors and coaches.

Development of Officials

Race officials and judges are trained by several groups but principally through USSA divisional programs. Five years of accreditation at the local or divisional level is required for national certification. These programs have been in effect for many years, but two or three years ago the U.S. and Canada started a new training program for officials who wish to earn international credentials; the program is producing about 10 internationally certified officials a year.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

Most Nordic and alpine ski races in this country are conducted in accordance with FIS regulations. One of the major exceptions is the team scoring method used for NCAA meets in which placement points and not FIS scoring tables are used.

Domestic

Nearly 80 alpine and 40 Nordic races listed on the FIS 1975-1976 calendar were hosted in the U.S. In addition, schools and clubs sponsor several thousand USSA-sanctioned races each year. Even though it means a loss of income from having to close off slopes, ski area operators usually are willing to sponsor major races because such events often attract more recreational skiers and spectators to the mountains. Commercial sponsors sometimes are tapped to cover the cost of putting on these races.

Races for recreational skiers are becoming more popular as more ski areas are sponsoring snow carnivals. Each year USSA puts on a Ski Week at a major ski resort, which serves as a showcase for recreational skiing. Contests and relays, orienteering[1], and citizen cup races are part of the fun.

A new kind of skiing gaining popularity over the past few years is known as freestyle skiing. "Stunt ballet" events for singles or pairs include choreographed programs set to music, similar to ice skating routines. The "mogul run" tests competitors' ability to descent a steep, hilly course. A third event is "aerial acrobatics," similar to diving or trampoline jumps, performed off of a ski ramp. While freestyle competition is becoming more commonplace in this country, it is expected to be several years before there is international competition in the sport.

Premier U.S. alpine ski races include FIS scheduled races, National Junior and Senior Championships and the Canadian/American Ski Trophy Series. Nordic events include FIS scheduled races, National Jumping Championships, USSA Cross-Country Championships, North American Championships, American Birkebeiner, International Ski Flying Championships and the NCAA Championships.

International

Major international alpine ski races include the FIS World Championships every two years (the Olympic Games doubles as the World Championship every four years), the annual World Cup series of races which last three or more months, Europa Cup competitions and the Nations' World Series of Skiing. Eight of the 48 final races in the World Cup series are held in the U.S. Virtually all of the major Nordic events are held in Europe, although the U.S. will host its first Nordic World Cup race in 1977.

An international, professional ski curcuit offering prize money to winners has attracted some international ski talent since 1968, but its popularity is waning with ski racers, spectators and TV audiences. The major innovation in professional racing is the dual slalom course, in which two skiers race side-by-side on parallel courses to heighten the drama.

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[1] A cross-country race on skis in which the competitor is permitted to use only a compass and a map and is scored on his ability to pass specific check points at specific times along an unfamiliar course.

Team Selection

United States alpine Ski Team selection is based on the accumulation of national and international racing results (FIS "points"), plus the evaluation of the national coaching staff in conjunction with developmental coaches throughout the country. USSA keeps a computerized seeding list on all registered competitive skiers. Current performance determines whether a skier is placed on the A, B, C, or Development Team. Selection for the Nordic Red, White and Blue teams follows similar procedures. Selection criteria for divisional teams in the nine regions also are based on racing results and accumulated points. Club teams, for the most part, are open to the club's entire membership.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The two branches of Olympic Skiing — alpine and Nordic — have represented opposite ends of the spectrum of winter sports development in the U.S. Alpine skiing always has been well-organized and well-funded, and has attracted a large number of talented athletes. Nordic skiing, on the other hand, has been limited to a few dedicated coaches and enthusiasts. However, this gap has been narrowing rapidly, and except for ski jumping — which is hampered by a lack of facilities and adequate coaching — Nordic skiing eventually may reach equality in terms of popular support and participation. Improved Nordic team performance should follow.

The U.S. skiing program has benefited over the years from a number of positive factors:

- A large recreational base of skiers who generally pursue and support the sport for a life-time;
- An accompanying boom in ski slope development providing more facilities than all of Europe combined;
- A strong tradition in alpine competition, especially for women, that keeps attracting younger talent;
- A well-organized governing body that offers a full-time staff and important services to clubs and members;
- A well-funded national ski team, which serves as a goal for competitive skiers, which relieves the families of top skiers of the burden of training costs, and which provides excellent year-round coaching and training opportunities;
- An aggressive and imaginative fund-raising operation, unmatched by any other amateur national governing body; and
- The training and development of top alpine coaches in this country, augmented by the relocation of many European coaches to the U.S. due to higher salary levels.

At the same time, a number of steps could be taken to build upon these strengths:

- Encourage business and government to support a facilities building program to overcome the shortage of modern ski jumps and to provide necessary all-season training facilities. Also, encourage municipalities and private landowners to designate parks, farmland, etc., for cross-country skiing. In addition, existing facilities might be designated for national and division training centers;
- Develop training programs for Nordic coaches, supplemented by the hiring of top coaches from abroad to fill the current gap in this discipline;
- Continue and expand subsidized training programs and clinics for younger skiers, especially at the divisional level. Develop programs to introduce children to Nordic disciplines;
- To avoid instability caused by USSA's review powers over USST's charter, adopt one of three possible solutions:

  a) conduct the charter review quadrennially, after the Winter Olympic Games, rather than annually as is now the case, to minimize discontinuities and to allow the Ski Team the greatest freedom possible in pursuing its program;

  b) transfer the franchise outright to USST since it already is responsible for the international program. In this way, there would be a clear demarcation between those responsible for administering recreational as opposed to competitive skiing programs (a course followed by the sport of speed skating); or

  c) to minimize the possibility of inter-organizational conflict, tighten up the revocation provisions of the USST charter so that USSA can withdraw the agreement only if there is approval of a majority of the board members of *both* USST and USSEF. (Although there are some overlapping directorships in both bodies, this alternative would show sport-wide agreement to such a far-reaching decision.)
- Promote skiing as a high school and college sport and provide further educational opportunities, including tutors, correspondence courses, summer school studies and sports

academies for national and divisional ski team members;

- Institute further exchange programs with European coaches and trainers;
- Host more international races, particularly Nordic events, to develop and promote the sport;
- Fund research and development programs in sports medicine as it relates to skiing.

EXHIBIT I
MAJOR COMMERCIAL SKIING SPONSORS

U.S. Ski Team, Inc.

CORPORATION	LENGTH OF CONTRACT	TOTAL VALUE
1. Sears, Roebuck & Co. Commercial contract for $400,000 in cash over four years, plus custom ordered casual and competitive ski wear for ski team athletes (valued in excess of $100,000).	4 years	$400,000+
2. Subaru of America, Inc. Commercial contract for $250,000 in cash over four years, plus $1 for every car sold in the U.S. during that time, plus the use of cars for Ski Team purposes.	4 years	$250,000+
3. Pan American World Airways, Inc. Commercial contract as "Official airline of the U.S. Ski Team" for $125,000 over four years.	4 years	$125,000
4. Warner Lambert Co. (Certs) TV advertising contract to sponsor 19 twenty-minute spots of World Cup races in the 1976-77 season.	1 year	$100,000
5. Wella Corporation (Wella Balsam Shampoo and Hair Conditioning Products) Product endorsement contract for $90,000 over four years.	4 years	$ 82,500
6. Beatrice Foods, Inc. (Dannon Yogurt division and Johnson Food division) Product endorsement contract as "Official yogurt of the U.S. Ski Team" for $90,000 over four years.	4 years	$ 90,000
7. Marvin Sugarman Productions, Inc. Sale of TV rights for all U.S. Ski Team appearances in the European World Cup races for the 1976-77 season.	1 year	$ 90,000
8. Equitable Life Assurance Co. Sponsor of the "Equitable Family Skiing Challenge", a series of regional and national ski races featuring family team events.	4 years	$ 87,500
9. Joseph Seagrams and Sons, Co. (Paul Masson Vines) Sponsor of the Paul Masson Celebrity Ski Weekend.	2 years	$ 62,000
10. Descente Co. U.S. Ski Team endorsement rights on a line of products sold in Japan.	4 years	$ 28,000
11. Ski People Inc. (Ski Key) Product licensing royalty agreement whereby 5 percent of each item sold goes to the USST.	1 year	$ 9,000+

CORPORATION	LENGTH OF CONTRACT	TOTAL VALUE
12. Aquatic Research Product licensing royalty agreement whereby 75-cents on every item sold goes to the USST.	1 year	$ 5,000+
13. 23 domestic and foreign ski manufacturers Provide an aggregate cash payment of $125,000 per year, plus continuing supply of custom-made equipment for the ski team pool, plus (in some cases) servicing of equipment as needed.		$125,000+

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USSA Enterprises, Inc.

CORPORATION	LENGTH OF CONTRACT	TOTAL VALUE
1. Eastman Kodak Co. Sponsor of "Medals for Miles", a cross-country, recreational ski touring program.	3 years	$ 60,000
2. U.S. Sports Association Travel Service Commercial contract as official foreign travel agency for USSA.	3 years	$ 3,000

SOCCER

Soccer is the world's most popular sport. The Federation Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) reports that the game is played in 132 countries by 100 million athletes. In 1950, 200,000 people in Rio de Janeiro watched the World Cup final between Brazil and Uruguay and the sport's popularity continues unabated.

Until recently, this international fervor had bypassed the U. S., but in the last 10 years thousands of youngsters throughout the country have taken up the game with enthusiasm. On the world class level, however, American soccer teams have a long way to go.

In 1974, the U. S. Soccer Federation (USSF) hired the former national coach of the German Football Association, Detmar Cramer, at a guaranteed net income (after taxes) of $50,000, to become the national coach and director of coaching in this country. This "Vince Lombardi of Soccer" was to prepare a creditable U. S. team for the 1978 World Cup. After six months of what had been publicized as a four-year contract, the coach returned to Germany. Apparently no formal contract had been signed between him and USSF. With such an interruption in plans and the failure to replace him until July 1976, it will be surprising if the American team qualifies for the World Cup in 1978.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

In terms of both participants and spectators, soccer is one of the fastest growing sports in this country. USSF reported 573,000 players in 503 leagues registered in 1975, almost double the number of players in 1970 and more than five times those registered in 1960. Even these figures are deceptive in that they do not include the American Youth Soccer League, which claimed more than 100,000 athletes in 1976. Soccer is also the fastest growing collegiate sport; 421 NCAA colleges had soccer programs in 1976 compared with 227 in 1967.

Further indication of the sport's popularity is the success of the professional North American Soccer League (NASL). In 1975 NASL reported 1,695,651 spectators saw 221 games; in 1976, its tenth season, NASL projected 2.5 million spectators for competitions involving its 20 franchises. All but two of the U. S. squad for the 1976 World Cup were NASL players and coaches selected for the 1975 national amateur teams were from professional clubs.

Although the participant base seems to be thriving, there are many obstacles to full development of the best athletes:

- Soccer competes for playing fields and athletes with more traditional American sports;
- The sport is played by numerous groups independent of the national governing body so there is no fully coordinated nationwide development program; and,
- Development for the best amateurs is hampered by a lack of coaches and officials with international experience, and by an inadequate procedure for selecting national teams.

Events in International Competition

Soccer is a team sport played on a rectangular field 100-130 yards long by 50-100 yards wide. Each team consists of 11 players, including the goalkeeper. Under international rules the game is officiated by one referee with the aid of a linesman on each side of the field. The object of the game is to score goals against the opposing team. Each goal counts as one point. Only the goalkeepers are allowed to use their hands to stop or catch the spherical ball. All other players on the field move the ball toward the defending team's goal by kicking or "heading" the ball to teammates.

Soccer is one of the few sports on the Olympic calendar in which amateurs may play with professionals in most competitions, except the Olympic Games. Because the Olympics are strictly for non-professionals and because many countries felt they were not represented by their best players in the amateur games, FIFA began the World Cup in 1928 to provide a comparable international competition for the best athletes, regardless of whether they were eligible for the Olympics. (In fact, England and West Germany did not send soccer teams to the 1976 Montreal Olympics.) From preliminary rounds, with approximately 100 teams, to the last 16 teams in the final playoffs, the best amateurs and professionals take part. Like the Olympics, the World Cup occurs every four years.

Other major international competitions open to the U.S. are the Pan American Games and the Coca-Cola sponsored World Youth Tournament (the first such contest will be held in Tunisia in 1977). In addition to tournaments, there are individual games, both amateur and professional, at home and abroad. In 1975-1976 USSF reported 64 international games: 36 amateur and 28 professional. The U.S. National Team played six games during this period, finishing with a won-lost record of 1-5.

History of World Ranking

Since U.S. teams – amateur or World Cup – have never consistently qualified for either the Olympics or the Cup, it is impossible to assign them a world rank. In Olympic competition the U.S. placed second to Canada in 1904 in a limited competition. Since qualifying rounds were inaugurated in 1960, the U.S. has qualified once, in 1972, when it finished last in its division.

East Germany won the Gold Medal in Montreal, followed by Poland and the USSR. The last World Cup, in 1974, was won by West Germany.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

In 1913 the U.S. Soccer Federation became affiliated with FIFA. (Prior to January 1974, USSF was known as the U.S. Soccer Football Association). USSF goals are:

- To promote soccer in the U.S., including national and international games and tournaments;
- To resolve questions and controversies not adjustable under the rules of the state associations concerned;
- To manage the National Challenge Cup (an "Open" competition for professionals and amateurs), the National Amateur Challenge Cup and the National Youth Cup competitions;
- To promote good will through physical fitness; and
- To foster youth fitness through competently planned and conducted youth clinics and competitions.

USSF estimates that 70% of all U.S. soccer players, on approximately 15,000 teams, belong to the federation. Unique among national sports governing bodies, USSF governs both amateur and professional leagues. USSF is a non-profit New York corporation. It consists of 37 state associations, two professional leagues (American Soccer League and the North American Soccer League), the Intercollegiate Soccer Association of America, National Soccer Coaches Association of America and the U.S. Olympic Soccer Team. The USSF Council acts as the Board of Directors of the organization. Each affiliated organization sends its representatives to Council meetings. Current composition of the USSF Council is:

- 37 state representatives, elected by their associations, with an alternate designated to act in the elected representative's absence. A second representative is accepted if the association has more than 50 teams (not including youth teams);
- Eight officers – a president, five vice-presidents, a treasurer and an executive secretary – who are elected at the annual meetings of USSF. There is no limitation on the number of terms an officer may serve;
- An officer of the North American Soccer League (NASL), two if a league exceeds 16 American-based teams and three if it exceeds 32 American-based teams;

- The Junior Past President of USSF and life members;
- One representative from the Intercollegiate Soccer Association of America (ISAA);
- One representative from the National Soccer Coaches Association of America (NSCAA); and
- One representative from the U. S. Olympic Team.

In 1975 USSF passed legislation to include a current member of the U. S. Olympic Team on its council but this position has never been filled. The representative was to be selected either by the team or the USSF President. However, current athletes have indicated to Commission staff that they were not aware that this position existed. The legislation calls for a current team member to serve on the Council, but once Olympic competition is over the team is not kept together; players join the professional leagues and become ineligible for the Olympic Team unless they sign a contract to play in the pro ranks as an amateur. Consequently, USSF now operates without player input at any administrative level.

Between Council meetings, USSF business is administered by the National Commission, composed of the President, the Vice Presidents, the Treasurer, the Junior Past President (advisory capacity only) and an officer of a National Professional League (two if the league reaches 16 American-based teams and three if it reaches 32 teams). The President appoints members and chairmen of 16 standing committees for one-year terms. The following chart shows USSF's organization.

Headquartered in New York, USSF's administrative office is run by the executive secretary, the only paid member of the National Commission. Assisted by a staff of four, the secretary handles a limited amount of semi-professional and professional soccer matters related to the national amateur team. The professional leagues have their own administrative structure. USSF headquarters schedules national championships, international trips, the printing of *Soccer Monthly*, coordination of coaches clinics and national team trials. Each state association, staffed by volunteers, is responsible for collecting registration fees and coordinating playing schedules, fields and officials.

For years soccer was regarded as a minor sport, played by ethnic groups in immigrant leagues. Today it is a well-developed game with active club competition for all ages in cities throughout the country. Nevertheless, critics of USSF claim its administration of the sport is deficient in a number of areas.

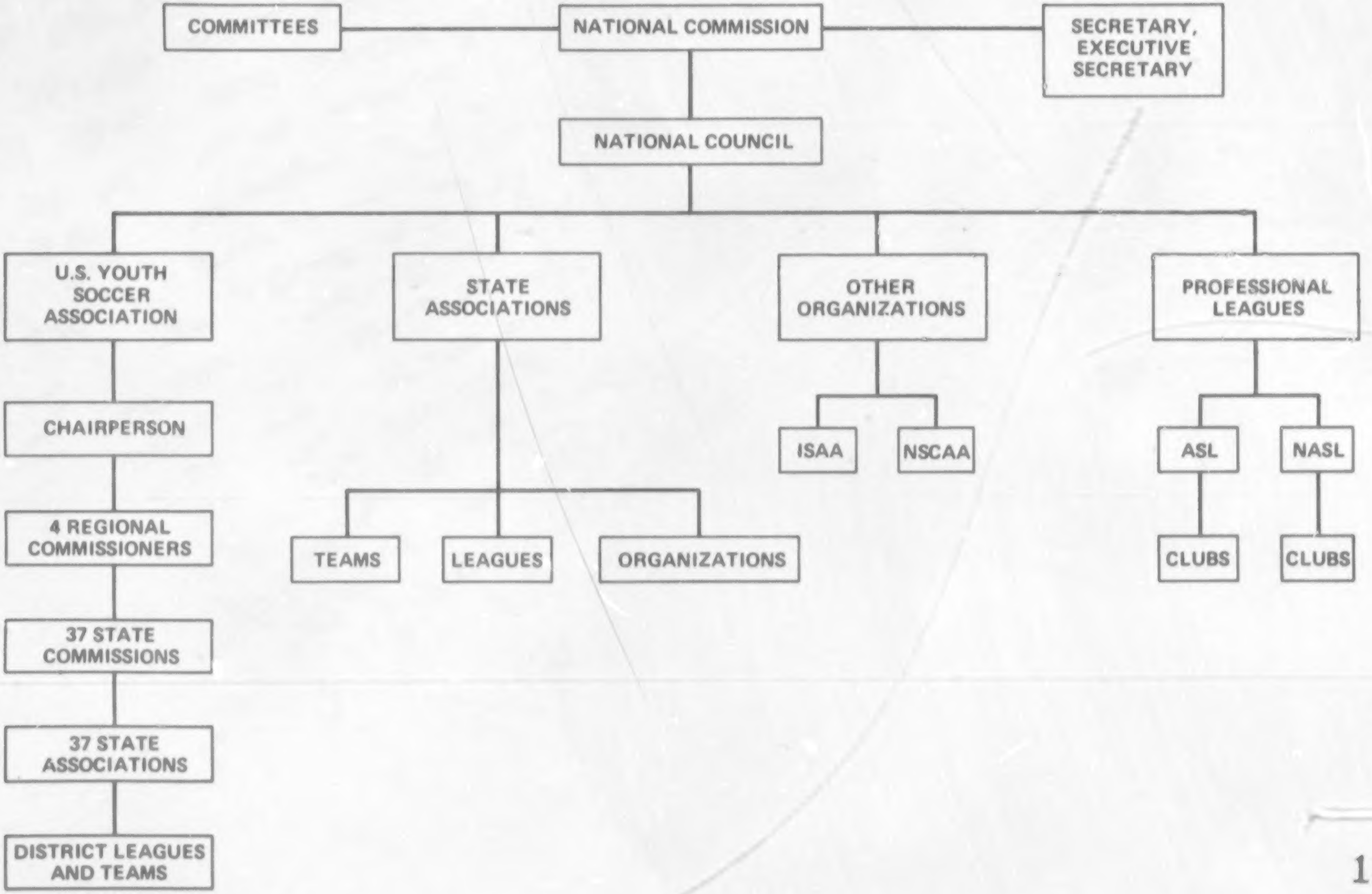
For one thing, USSF does not comply with some of its own rules. Rule 407, for example, calls for the appointment of a certified public accountant to audit the Treasurer's books and to submit a report to the Council. In fact, the Finance Committee Chairman and the USSF Treasurer submit an annual report with the USSF balance sheet and statement of Income and Expenses attached. The report is labelled unaudited, and no letter or report is submitted by a certified public accountant. Furthermore, the format of the USSF financial reports over the last six years have varied, making it difficult to compare USSF operations on a year-to-year basis.

Rule 207 (b) calls for a representative of the U. S. Olympic Team to be a player on the team and to serve as a Council representative. This position has never been filled.

Section C, Rule 1001 indicates that FIFA rules of soccer shall apply. However, USSF has not consistently applied, and perhaps could not enforce FIFA rules of play among all member organizations such as the Intercollegiate Soccer Association of America whose teams use the scholastic rules of competition. Consequently, U. S. soccer players must learn different sets of rules with varying interpretations. For example, the 1972 U. S. Olympic Team, made up largely of collegiate players had a goal scored against it while it was awaiting the "second whistle" after a penalty had been called. In NCAA soccer, two whistles are blown—one to stop play and another to restart. In international rules only one whistle is used—to stop play. Most, if not all, of the U. S. team had been weaned on the two-whistle rule, for which they suffered in international competition. Those who saw this incident reported that the crowd laughed at the U. S. team.

Another area of criticism is that although it is the national governing body for soccer in the U. S., USSF's membership does not include representatives of all major soccer constituencies in the country. USSF cannot force teams or organizations to join the Federation even though FIFA may expect USSF to affiliate all soccer organizations. In fact, however, several youth leagues—such as the American Youth Soccer Organization (AYSO)—conduct soccer programs independent of USSF. Further, the largest soccer referees association in the U. S., the National Intercollegiate Soccer Officials Association (NISOA) is not a USSF member, although an affiliation or a proposal for joint

U.S. SOCCER FEDERATION ORGANIZATION CHART[1]


COMMITTEES
NATIONAL COMMISSION
SECRETARY, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY
NATIONAL COUNCIL
U.S. YOUTH SOCCER ASSOCIATION
STATE ASSOCIATIONS
OTHER ORGANIZATIONS
PROFESSIONAL LEAGUES
CHAIRPERSON
4 REGIONAL COMMISSIONERS
37 STATE COMMISSIONS
37 STATE ASSOCIATIONS
DISTRICT LEAGUES AND TEAMS
TEAMS
LEAGUES
ORGANIZATIONS
ISAA
NSCAA
ASL
NASL
CLUBS
CLUBS

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[1] Source: USSF Official Rulebook for Administration, 1975, pp. i, 79, plus PCOS staff additions.

programs is under discussion. Finally, USSF currently is involved in an anti-trust suit with one of its affiliates, the professional American Soccer League (ASL).

In a speech delivered to ASL on May 15, 1976, the AYSO chairman discussed the inability of the U. S. to produce world class soccer players, and proposed that AYSO and ASL jointly seek the FIFA franchise as a new group called the American Soccer Association. No progress has been made on the proposed merger pending the outcome of the ASL-USSF legal dispute (discussed below in the sub-section on ASL).

Other Major Organizations

AYSO

The primary purpose of the American Youth Soccer Organization (AYSO), a non-profit, tax-exempt corporation chartered in California in 1974, is:

> –To teach, promote and develop youth soccer in the United States and to aid in the development of American boys and girls in body and character by fostering soccer competition.[2]

AYSO's philosophy, "Everyone Plays" or "enforced substitution," means that every registered youngster in attendance will play a minimum of half of every game. Participation–rather than winning–is the main objective. In addition, AYSO promotes women's soccer and encourages parents to get involved as officials or coaches or volunteer administrators.

AYSO affiliates pay a registration fee of $45 per team. Each team has a maximum of 15 players. AYSO operates on an annual budget received from registration fees, individual and business contributions, and team sponsorships. Headquartered in Torrance, California, AYSO has a staff of six employees, including an executive director, office manager, secretary, and two part-time assistants, bookkeeper, regional supplies officer and insurance secretary. The national office disburses funds for supplies, playoffs, legal and professional services, accounting fees, clinics, films, and the Accident Reimbursement Program. The Accident Reimbursement Program assists in the payment of medical bills which result from injuries to registered AYSO members while participating in a sanctioned AYSO practice or game.

As of August 31, 1976 there were more than 100,000 athletes on 6,800 AYSO teams. The league is divided into 15 areas and further divided into 131 regions in California, Oregon, Hawaii, Michigan, Arizona, Utah, Connecticut, Kansas, Idaho, Pennsylvania, New York, New Mexico, Illinois, Alaska, Maryland, Tennessee, and Virginia. Age group divisions are 7-9, 10-12, 10-13, 13-15, 16-18, for girls and 7-8, 9-10, 11-12, 13-14, 15-16, 17-18 for boys.

AYSO is governed by a Board of Directors. The process of electing and/or appointing AYSO officials at various levels is remarkably circular. The Board of Directors appoint Regional Commissioners with the approval of Area Directors.

Regional Commissioners elect Area Directors, with the approval of the Board of Directors. Area Directors, Regional Commissioners and the Board of Directors in turn, elect the Board of Directors.

The Board consists of the President, Executive Vice President, two or more Vice Presidents, Secretary and Treasurer. The Board numbers no fewer than six and no more than eight members. All officers are Board members and are elected for three-year terms. There is no limit on the number of terms an officer may serve if re-elected. The President appoints individuals to fill any vacancies. There are no provisions requiring athlete representation at any level of AYSO's governing structure. In 1976 the Board of Directors elected the Executive Committee (three persons) which was formerly appointed by the President. The Executive Committee conducts AYSO business between Board Meetings.

The position of Chairman was created in 1976, to which the founder and retiring/outgoing President of AYSO was elected. In August 1976 the newly-elected President asked for the resignation of the Executive Director. This position was then filled by the Chairman, who resigned as Chairman. The position of Chairman remains unfilled as of this writing.

AYSO holds an annual meeting of its membership prior to its fiscal year end, June 30. A semi-annual general meeting is held in mid-season (January or February) for the Area Directors and the respective Regional Commissioners.

The Board meets during the year at intervals determined by the President. A quorum consists of a majority of the Directors.

The following chart shows AYSO's organizational structure.

Regional Commissioners have complete authority and responsibility to conduct the business of the region. The Commissioners appoint or elect a minimum of two staff members–Treasurer and Safety Director. The Directors of Development, Publicity, Insurance, Coaching and Of-

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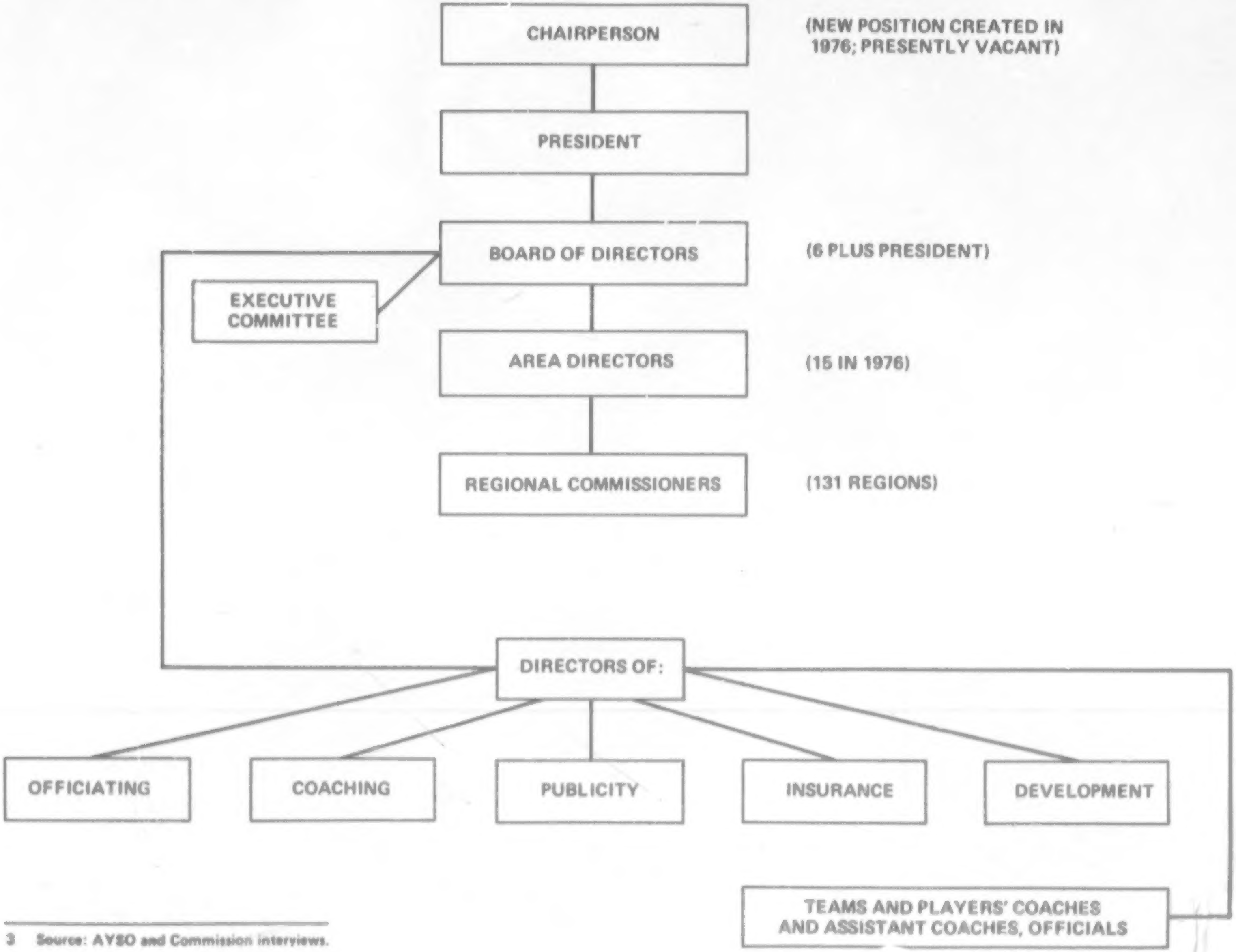
[2] AYSO Fact Sheet: AYSO Objective, November 1975.

AMERICAN YOUTH SOCCER ORGANIZATION ORGANIZATION CHART[3]


CHAIRPERSON
(NEW POSITION CREATED IN 1976; PRESENTLY VACANT)
PRESIDENT
BOARD OF DIRECTORS
(6 PLUS PRESIDENT)
EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
AREA DIRECTORS
(15 IN 1976)
REGIONAL COMMISSIONERS
(131 REGIONS)
DIRECTORS OF:
OFFICIATING
COACHING
PUBLICITY
INSURANCE
DEVELOPMENT
TEAMS AND PLAYERS' COACHES AND ASSISTANT COACHES, OFFICIALS

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[3] Source: AYSO and Commission interviews.

ficiating are appointed by the Board of Directors subject to the approval of the Area Directors.

AYSO is not a member of USSF, either directly or through its state associations. Several years ago USSF banned AYSO from its ranks for allowing competition between AYSO teams and a non-affiliated organization. Recently, however, the two groups have been discussing their differences. AYSO's proposal for direct affiliation has been rejected by USSF as the latter requires organizations such as AYSO to affiliate through each state association. However, USSF is prepared to adopt AYSO's philosophy of "Everyone Plays" once AYSO brings its clubs into the USSF network.

Professional Leagues

NASL

The North American Soccer League (NASL) was formed in 1968 when the U. S. Soccer Association and the National Professional Soccer League merged. After one year only five franchises remained of the original 17. Today, however, the league is alive and well, with 20 teams in 1976, including two in Canada, and plans to increase to 24 in 1978.

Approximately 15 persons staff NASL headquarters, including a Commissioner, an Assistant Commissioner, Director of Marketing, Director of Sales, Director of Officials, Director of Administration and Information, and Director of Public Relations. Each NASL team has its own full-time administration and coaching staff. NASL teams work with local youth, high school and amateur teams, making coaches and players available for clinics.

NASL assisted USSF with the 1976 Bicentennial Soccer Cup, a one-time only six-game tournament involving national teams from Brazil, Italy and England, and a U. S. All-Star Team. USSF's International Games Committee selected the best NASL players to represent the U. S. without concern for citizenship. USSF was responsible for the tournament, but was assisted by the NASL office and clubs in the interests of ensuring the success of both this major event and the future of U. S. soccer. The tournament had $1.5 million budget, geared to promoting U. S. soccer and generating profits to benefit USSF programs. The Coca-Cola Company guaranteed this international event against losses up to $200,000, a reserve that was called upon when proceeds from the tournament were insufficient to cover expenses.

NASL is represented on the USSF Council and its National Commission. However, USSF has relatively little to do with NASL's operation. NASL pays USSF $2,500 per year and a one-time fee of $25,000 for each new NASL franchise. The franchise fee, according to the USSF rulebook, is "in recognition of the responsibility of professional clubs to assist in the development of the game...." NASL, rather than USSF established criteria for accepting new professional clubs, based on the popularity of soccer in a new territory and the financial strength of the team owners.

NASL and USSF have a good working relationship. NASL club teams support local youth teams and USSF state association programs by conducting soccer skills clinics in the off-season. These clinics usually are free and generate good will and support for both amateur and professional soccer. NASL is an important factor in the growth and development of U. S. soccer.

In 1976 NASL rules called for a minimum of six of the 16 players on NASL teams to be U. S. or Canadian citizens. The rule is designed to reduce the importation of professionals from Europe and Latin America and to provide opportunities for emerging Northern American talent. NASL has a policy of increasing the quota of American players on its teams with the goal of producing an international caliber World Cup team. Some clubs such as the St. Louis Stars have built strong squads, which contain American players. NASL drafts most of its U. S. talent from college soccer programs. NASL clubs do not pay any "compensation" to the college or club team responsible for developing the athletes drafted (a practice which does occur in ice hockey).

Professional soccer is not as lucrative as other professional sports in the U. S. Few players have year-round contracts although some teams obtain off-season employment for their players. Amateur soccer players can play on professional teams if they sign "amateur" contracts that prohibit receipt of salary; players thus remain eligible for the Pan American and Olympic Games teams provided they do not accept more than $50 per game.

ASL

The American Soccer League (ASL), active since 1933, is not growing as fast as NASL. It has neither as many teams nor as many resources, but ASL teams do contribute to local development programs. An Executive Director and four administrative support staffers operate the New York ASL headquarters.

According to USSF, ASL consistently has violated USSF rules. The USSF rule book states:

"Subject to the control and supervision of the

USSF and permission of the State Association or Commission involved, the American Soccer League shall have the right, power, and privilege to organize, promote, and operate professional teams in the following territories:

- Connecticut,
- Football Association of East Pennsylvania and District,
- Maryland State and District of Columbia,
- New Jersey,
- New York State,
- Northern Massachusetts and New Hampshire, and
- Southern New England and Rhode Island

with such extensions in territory as may from time to time be approved by the USSF and with permission of the State Association or Commission involved and, except as otherwise herein provided, shall have interstate professional territorial rights within the above defined geographical area."

ASL nevertheless has teams in territories not specified in the USSF rulebook and has not received USSF sanction for some of these teams. In 1975, for example, an ASL team in Chicago failed to obtain the sanction certification of USSF and the Illinois Soccer Association but played a regular schedule anyway. Further, in 1976 ASL conducted a national schedule in two divisions: six teams in the East and five teams in the West. Some of these teams have not joined the USSF state associations and are therefore not members of USSF.

Another violation, according to USSF, concerns ASL's league franchise fee ($25,000 per team). This is the basis for ASL's law suit charging USSF with restraint of trade and anti-trust violations. ASL asserts that USSF refused to register new ASL players or to sanction ASL games. A petition for an injunction was filed in April 1976 in Federal District Court, Cleveland, Ohio, giving ASL permission to conduct its 1976 season without USSF interference.

In the May 1976 issue of *World Soccer*, an article entitled "Trials and Tribulations of USSF" summarized each party's side of the dispute. USSF's position is that ASL has not submitted an application for permission to expand its program from that of a Regional Professional League to that of a National Professional League. Furthermore, ASL teams have not paid the $25,000 fee for each individual franchise and the league has not paid its $2,500 annual affiliation fee.

ASL, charging USSF with restraint of trade, contends that it offered to pay $25,000 for each of its new franchises, although asking that existing franchises be exempt. ASL says that a precedent for this exemption exists, claiming that when NASL was formed the initial five franchises did not pay the franchise fee. USSF, however, says that it received $250,000 from the first 10 NASL franchises in exchange for 15 franchises. That is, instead of $25,000 per team, NASL only had to pay $16,667 per team ($250,000 divided by 15). USSF offered a similar arrangement to ASL but at this writing the offer has not been accepted and the matter remains unresolved.

USSF maintains that if it does not enforce its rules it will be vulnerable to a NASL countercharge of discrimination. Furthermore, USSF says it could be subject to FIFA action for failing to carry out the FIFA mandate: "responsibility for promoting and organizing the game of soccer in U. S." The issue has not yet been settled in court, but recent decisions on similar sports matters have struck hard at restrictive practices and have impaired the national governing body's attempts to carry out international federation rules and procedures.

ASL has existed since 1933 but recently the league's viability has been questioned. ASL plans to continue operation in 1977, but at this time the format of the competition and the number of clubs participating is not known. Although in bad standing, ASL continues to be a member of USSF and to have a voice but no vote on the USSF Council.

ASL allows a maximum of seven non-U. S. citizens to play on the 18-member squads and, like NASL, drafts players from the colleges.

Scholastic Soccer

Scholastic soccer programs operate both independently of each other and of USSF. None of the scholastic soccer organizations are affiliated directly with USSF. However, the Intercollegiate Soccer Association of America (ISAA), an affiliate of USSF, is affiliated with NCAA, NAIA and NJCAA.

ISAA

ISAA is an organization composed of about 300 scholastic institutions which sponsor intercollegiate soccer teams. Member institutions pay a $25 annual membership fee. ISAA provides awards for the most valuable offensive and defensive players at the NCAA, NAIA and NJCAA national tournaments. In conjunction with the National Soccer Coaches Association of America, ISAA provides funds for facilities and personal resources in the conduct of youth development clinics and soccer coaching schools.

NCAA

Soccer is one of the NCAA's fastest growing sports. In 1976 60% of all NCAA schools (421) played soccer compared with 33% in 1956 (128). The sport is administered by the NCAA Soccer Committee through the college conference athletic programs.

This committee has developed rules of play that differ from FIFA rules, often creating problems for NCAA players who compete internationally. (See the section on Competition.)

The Soccer Committee consists of 14 members: six from Division I, three each from Divisions II and III, one from NJCAA soccer and one from the high school federation (NFSHSA). The committee formulates playing rules and determines general policies for the three division championships. The NCAA is not directly affiliated with USSF.

NJCAA

The National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA) conducts a soccer program which includes inter-regional playoffs, regional and national tournaments. In 1975-76 129 NJCAA member schools had soccer programs, compared with 70 in 1966. There is no women's soccer program in NJCAA schools. NJCAA uses scholastic rules of play.

NFSHSA

High school soccer is a vital link in the chain of development of young soccer players. The National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA) recommends that its rules of play – very similar to NCAA rules – be used in all schools and related organizations. A significant portion of the U. S. Youth team for the 1977 Coca-Cola Youth Tournament will come from high school programs. However, certain state associations (e.g., Missouri) place restrictions on students who are selected to this team. Absence from school for more than a prescribed period violates rules in some high school associations. The athlete is then vulnerable to being declared ineligible to play on his high school team for some length of time. (See Competition.)

NAIA

The National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) conducts a soccer program involving more than 180 teams. Between 1971 and 1976 the NAIA soccer program did not show significant growth, going from 4,368 participants in 1971-72 to 4,536 in 1973-74. NAIA soccer is played under scholastic rules of play.

RESOURCES

Personnel

USSF

Recently USSF hired an NCAA coach to be national Director of Coaching, a position which had been vacant for almost 18 months. This person is responsible for the selection and training of the national teams, both amateur and World Cup, and for the operation of the National Coaching School. In 1976 USSF reported that 500 coaches were certified, bringing the total number of USSF-certified coaches to 1,300. Licenses are awarded at three levels: A, B and C. USSF claims to have 17,000 referees. However, it has no official certification program and no training program for referees. It has been considering a cooperative program with the National Intercollegiate Soccer Officials Association (NISOA), but at this writing a formal affiliation has not been arranged. Most USSF referees could officiate at high school and college games if recognized by NISOA and the scholastic soccer groups.

AYSO

Approximately 25,000 volunteers carry on the AYSO program, including 6,800 coaches, 6,800 assistant coaches, 2,200 referees, team mothers and others. Referees and coaches do not have to pass certification tests although AYSO is developing a program to train coaches and to teach them how to motivate and understand young soccer players.

NASL and ASL

Each professional team has at least a two-member coaching staff, most of whom have been hired from overseas. Each club also provides local youth and club teams with coaching staff as requested on an ad hoc basis.

FIFA

U. S. representatives to FIFA are the USSF president and one vice president. The USSF executive secretary attends FIFA meetings at the request of the president. FIFA recognizes USSF but at the same time it is aware of the unrest that exists between the various organizations involved in U. S. soccer.

NCAA and NJCAA

An NCAA executive coordinates the three NCAA soccer championships and oversees the Soccer Rules Committee. Most collegiate soccer programs have one coach and some have an assistant coach as well. The junior college programs operate in similar fashion.

NFSHSA

Each state high school has a soccer program and most schools participate. High school soccer coaches are generally involved in coaching other sports. The knowledge of soccer varies greatly between schools and states. For instance, Northern Virginia and St. Louis place high priority on high school soccer. Playing conditions and coaching is relatively good. Therefore, it may be anticipated that these, and other areas of high interest will continue to produce strong soccer players and enthusiastic supporters of the sport.

NISOA

Scholastic soccer programs are supported by the National Intercollegiate Soccer Officials Association (NISOA) which has a part-time executive director. NISOA officials are available for all scholastic soccer games; referees are usually compensated for their services. NISOA is not currently affiliated with the USSF but many of its members do officiate at USSF games. In addition, the National Soccer Coaches Association of America (NSCAA) and the Intercollegiate Soccer Association of America (ISAA), both of which are made up of college and high school coaches and officials, cooperate to promote and develop scholastic soccer.

Finances/Funding

USSF

The federation receives the following kinds of membership revenues:

State Associations	$25 plus 50¢ per team in excess of 20 teams
State Youth Associations	$25
Senior Amateur	$2
Youth Player (19 and under)	50¢
Professional Player	$10
National Pro Leagues	$2,500
Regional Pro Leagues	$1,250

Exhibit I is a summary based on USSF financial statements for the latest three fiscal years. These statements are unaudited and the following adjustments have been made:

- Income and expense accounts have been separated from each of the unaudited income and expense statements and certain categories of income and expense have been combined;
- USOC grants are paid for specific, approved Olympic soccer programs. The funds have been included to indicate the approximate extent of national level funding. However, it is recognized that USSF does not include these funds in its financial statement. It is assumed that all USOC funds are spent in the year in which the funds are made available; and
- Deficits in the "Foreign Tours Account," a separate fund, are funded from the general account. In 1975 USSF lost $15,653 and in 1976 $18,688. The amount of foreign competition varies from year to year and financial information on this matter may not include all U. S.-foreign soccer competition. Included is the percentage of income from foreign games in 1974 and the Foreign Tour receipts for 1973 and 1974. The 1976 statements do not include the Bicentennial Soccer Tournament.

AYSO

AYSO's annual budget is funded from registration fees, individual and business contributions and team sponsorships. Annual registration for AYSO teams is $45. Each team has a maximum of 15 players and each athlete pays an annual membership fee of $3. A corporate sponsorship program is under way designed to raise $1 per athlete to subsidize team membership fees to enable all athletes, regardless of their financial status, to play soccer. The budget is approved by the 131 AYSO commissioners. See Exhibit II.

Facilities/Equipment

International rules require a soccer field to be between 100 and 130 yards long and between 50 and 100 yards wide. Most U. S. facilities are controlled by Parks and Recreation authorities, high schools, and colleges; very few clubs own their fields. Although access to fields is not generally a problem, college and high school soccer teams often come into conflict with football teams for use of the fields. Some colleges have fields devoted specifically to soccer, however.

Another difficulty, especially when sharing fields with other sports, is the quality of the playing surface. Uneven surfaces can cause leg injuries and artificial turf is not generally used in international class soccer although many teams do play on this fast surface.

EXHIBIT I

Summary of the Financial Statements of USSF, for Years Ended May 31[4]

Item	Amounts 1976	1975	1974
1. *Income*			
Affiliation Fees	$ 1,651	$ 6,566	$ 1,514
Amateur Registrations	98,910	74,792	45,951
Books	9,888	5,825	9,278
Films, Emblems	3,253	6,259	4,298
Coaching	15,690	23,825	29,390
Professional Registrations	13,484	12,472	15,279
Referee Registrations	9,108	8,000	7,485
Permissions	9,213	6,863	6,281
U. S. Youth Soccer Assoc.	52,127	37,211	16,046
National Competitions	16,191	11,370	11,540
Foreign Games/Tours	19,231	20,232	95,018
NASL Franchise Fee	–	75,000	–
USOC Funds[5]	17,250	49,850	33,750
Interest Income	5,613	5,615	2,396
Other Income	2,000	500	100
Fines	850	5,480	5,315
Soccer Monthly	49,034	58,776	–
TOTAL	$323,493	$408,637	$283,641

Item	Amounts 1976	1975	1974
2. *Expenditure*			
Pins, Crests, Ties	$ 3,136	$ 2,414	$ 5,526
Concacaf	2,013	6,235	1,409
FIFA meetings, dues, etc.	1,359	3,002	702
Coaching Expenses	14,930	41,121	21,606
Production of Books	6,445	2,221	12,606
Secretary's Office	124,907	99,480	73,936
Annual Meeting	5,624	10,099	3,601
Legal Fees	9,001	11,471	18,720
National Commission Meetings	10,112	14,425	8,027
International Games Committee	1,005	2,602	303
Other Administration	2,300	2,000	1,800
Soccer Monthly	73,867	113,838	–
Public Relations (Including Youth)	6,344	4,042	17,781
Referee's Committee	6,823	279	1,000
Olympic Committee	435	10,551	352
National Competitions	–	6,000	47,143
Foreign Tours	–	–	24,868
USOC Funds	17,250	49,850	33,750
TOTAL	$285,551	$379,630	$273,130
Net Income (1-2)	$37,942	$29,007	$10,511

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[4] This summary has been re-stated from the USSF annual reports for the years ended May 31, 1974, 1975, and 1976 for the purpose of consistent presentation across all categories of income and expenditure.

[5] USOC Sports Budget/Development Appropriations.

USSF – Balance Sheet as of May 31, 1976

Assets:		*Liabilities:*	
Total Cash	$157,346	Payroll Taxes	$ 1,336
Other Assets	32,203	Law Suit Liability	14,853
	$189,549	Coaching Courses	13,000
			$29,189

Fund Balances at May 31, 1976: $160,360

EXHIBIT II

American Youth Soccer Organization Statement of Cash Receipts and Disbursements for the Years Ended June 30

	1971	*1972*	*1973*	*1975*	*1975*
Receipts					
Registration Fees	$51,843	$115,990	$203,816	$361,652	$673,828
Contributions	11,969	17,972	44,460	68,957	112,086
Fund Raising Activities	7,195	29,991	78,144	112,722	180,118
Other	8,793	–	4,452	2,744	14,803
TOTAL RECEIPTS	$79,800	$163,953	$330,872	$546,075	$980,835
Disbursements					
Uniforms	$22,294	$ 43,318	$ 92,899	$132,764	$226,490
Soccer Balls	8,403	19,394	34,874	53,454	72,066
Field Equipment & Maint.	6,761	13,141	23,584	39,668	56,300
Awards & Trophies	5,183	12,829	23,661	46,655	78,377
Merchandise Purchased	7,022	13,373	41,400	38,469	57,380
Promotion & Fund Raising	3,890	9,309	20,653	54,156	102,919
Insurance Premiums	8,285	21,575	13,306	35,740	32,462
Travel	3,654	2,255	4,691	10,858	19,715
Stationery & Printing	6,705	9,855	19,991	24,306	37,354
Postage & Shipping	720	1,733	3,677	5,745	9,585
Telephone	505	665	1,595	2,390	6,065
Office Salaries & Costs	–	–	4,116	9,997	19,179
Office Rent	–	–	1,030	1,800	2,544
Miscellaneous	1,580	630	1,710	3,998	13,515
TOTAL DISBURSEMENTS	$75,002	$148,057	$287,187	$460,000	$733,951
Receipts in excess of disb.	$4,798	$15,896	$43,685	$86,075	$246,844

	1974	*1975*
Retained receipts represented by:		
Cash in checking accounts	$ 65,236	$215,026
Cash in saving accounts	88,461	184,552
	$153,697	$400,581
Retained receipts are allocated as follows:		
Parent Organization Operating Fund	$ 543	$ 65,480
Development Fund	1,827	—[8]
Playoff Fund	1,385	—[8]
Accident Reimbursement Program Fund	33,238	—[8]
Retained by Local Regions	116,704	335,101
	$153,697	$400,581

[8] In 1975 the Development Fund, Playoff Fund and Accident Reimbursement Program Fund were eliminated. These were combined into the Local Region and Parent Organization Operating Fund.

Equipment is relatively inexpensive: one-time outfitting for jersey, shorts, shoes and ball is about $45-50 per player. In comparison, football ($90) and baseball ($65) are more expensive.[7]

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

As noted earlier, USSF reported 573,000 players in 1975. The federation does not have accurate breakdowns for men and women, but estimates that 5,000 to 6,000 women and approximately 125,000 youth (under 18) play.

AYSO claimed more than 100,000 registered athletes in 1976. Starting with nine teams and 135 athletes in 1964-65, AYSO had grown to 2,699 teams and 40,485 athletes in ten years. In 1976-77 the organization had 6,800 teams and 102,000 athletes.

Collegiate and scholastic participation figures for soccer are as follows:

NCAA (1971-1972)	351 institutions and 12,024 athletes
NJCAA (1975-1976)	129 institutions 3,396 athletes
NFSHSA (1974-1975)	3,765 schools and 110,000 boys and girls.

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[7] Survey from the Washington Star, November 4, 1975.

Athlete Development

Although the U. S. team failed to qualify for the 1977 World Youth Cup, U. S. youth teams (both club and national squads) have in the past held their own on European tours. However, U. S. athletes do not seem to develop at the same rate as athletes from other countries after approximately 16 years of age. It is difficult to explain this apparent slow down in development, but one reason could be the relative lack of playing experience of U. S. athletes compared to those in other countries. For instance young players in the United Kingdom and Mexico will play between 60 and 70 games per year (or so it is estimated by U. S. players and coaches who have played against athletes from these countries). College athletes may play 10 to 18 games per season, depending upon the schedule organized for the particular college team and the team's winning record in the NCAA championship. Lack of competition and good quality soccer, either from touring teams or from other college teams can also be a hindrance to athlete development.

Some college coaches and retired professional players conduct summer camps and some often use accomplished players as their assistants. For those who can afford it, these camps are an excellent supplement to scholastic and club programs. USSF does not sponsor summer camps, but does conduct clinics in cooperation with its State Associations. Critics of these USSF clinics rate them as too little, too brief, and too infrequent. The professional leagues hold clinics at the local level, but there is no coordinated development program sponsored by USSF for elite athletes.

The hiring by USSF of a national Director of Coaching bodes well for future development, however, as does the sponsorship of the Youth Soccer Tournament by the Coca-Cola Company.

In May 1976, FIFA, USSF and Coca-Cola announced the creation of the FIFA World Youth Tournament for the Coca-Cola Cup. The first tournament will be played in Tunisia in 1977. However, the U. S. team was eliminated from the final competition in September 1976 after losing to Honduras and Mexico in the quarter finals of the CONCACAF (Confederación Norte-Centroamericana y del Caribe de Fútbol) preliminary tournament.

In accordance with the provisions of its contract with FIFA, Coca-Cola and USSF have signed a four-year contract, consummated in June 1976 after 10 years of discussion at various levels. Under the terms of the agreement, Coca-Cola will allocate $300,000 a year to sponsor youth soccer in the U. S., a budget which includes provision for a full-time administrator for the program. In addition, regional Coca-Cola has designated a national coordinator and a soccer skills program targeted for 50 U. S. markets. A USSF handbook of Youth Soccer will be printed and circulated by Coca-Cola within USSF Youth Soccer Associations. The USSF Executive Commission is responsible for liaison with Coca-Cola, but – as of this writing – has not hired the full-time administrator provided for in the contract.

If USSF can integrate support efforts effectively with the Coca-Cola network, the benefit to U. S. youth soccer and USSF will be significant. Apparently Coca-Cola has invested in soccer because it believes it will become the fourth largest team sport in the U. S.; the company is aware of the world-wide popularity of soccer and of the potential for its growth in the U. S.

The critical problem in soccer seems to be the shortage of well qualified and professionally prepared soccer coaches. High school age athletes do not lack enthusiasm for the game, nor are fitness and health at all constraining factors. Rather, until recently, programs to teach the "passing, tackling and trapping" required of technically sound soccer players were not generally available to American youth early enough in their development. In 1977, USSF and Coca-Cola plan to disseminate literature with soccer skills explained and illustrated.

AYSO teams have hosted soccer teams from West Germany and Mexico and have in turn visited West Germany, Holland, England, Mexico, the West Indies and Japan. The teams must raise their own travel funds. These exchanges risk curtailment, however, because foreign teams risk discipline by FIFA or by their national governing body for playing AYSO teams not affiliated with the U. S. national governing body (USSF).

Coach Development

Coaches attend the USSF Coaching School at their own expense. In 1976 six such schools were conducted in different parts of the country and total USSF-certified coaches now number 1,300. AYSO is developing its own coaching school but through 1976 qualifications of AYSO coaches varied. AYSO coaches need not pass certification tests.

Officials Development

USSF does not have a national training program for referees. Although NISOA is not currently associated with USSF, many of its members officiate at USSF games. Once an agreement between NISOA and USSF is reached, it is expected that USSF will use NISOA as the national soccer officials association.

AYSO offered three referee schools in 1976 but they were not compulsory. AYSO's training program for officials emphasizes, first, understanding youth players and second, the use of discretion by officials according to the circumstance rather than strictly interpreting the rules at all times.

NASL has its own referees association that uses international caliber referees only.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

Although USSF soccer programs are conducted in accordance with FIFA rules of competition, these have undergone several variations in other U. S. programs. The NCAA soccer rules committee has made certain significant changes, most of which have been adopted by the scholastic soccer programs. NASL also has made some changes to FIFA rules.

Obviously, as noted earlier, multiple sets of rules can be confusing (e.g., the NCAA's two-whistle rule). Nevertheless, NFSHSA, NCAA and NASL maintain that the use of multiple sets of rules is not an impediment to U. S. soccer. According to many officials, the opportunity to play and the acquisition of good skills is more important at this stage of the development of U. S. soccer.

Rules for eligibility also vary. NFSHSA has established criteria for students who are absent from school to play in international competition. Interpretation of the criteria and ruling on eligibility is the responsibility of each state high school board of control.

Sometimes high school athletes are forced to choose between representing the country or the school team. In 1976 in Missouri, three or four players were invited to try out to represent the U. S. in the CONCACAF regional Youth World Cup soccer tournament. They declined because they faced being declared ineligible for high school soccer and, indirectly, could have jeopardized their chances of securing a good college scholarship. One player from Missouri went to the trials anyway and was selected. He had permission from his parents and the principal of his school, as well as cooperation from his teachers. Nevertheless, the Missouri Board of Control ruled this player ineligible. He did not play high school soccer in the fall and his development undoubtedly will suffer. The athlete and his parents are presently challenging the ineligibility determination in the courts. In Connecticut, by contrast, the Board of Control rules that players on the international team would be eligible to play high school soccer.

International Competition

USSF is responsible for selecting the national teams for the World Cup, Pan American and Olympic Games, World Youth Cup and various international trips. Four squads from four regions are invited by a panel of regional coaches to attend the national amateur team trials. Usually selectors will attend college and club competition to discover potential soccer talent to invite to trials. A national squad selected from these trials is cut or expanded by the national coaching staff.

The World Cup Team is selected by the national coach. NASL players and the best amateurs are the pool from which he chooses. Only U. S. citizens are eligible for this team. National team selection has been criticized because: a) it relies on the selectors' limited knowledge of available talent, b) the time between selection and the actual competition is too short, and c) team selection dates are a "sudden death" situation for the amateurs, risking the non-selection of a good player who may have a bad trial.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Soccer is one of the fastest growing sports in the U. S. Its many organizations have created a breadth of opportunity for U. S. athletes unmatched by most sports on the Olympic calendar. Accepted as a scholastic sport, soccer has grown from its original ethnic following in the U. S. to the point that some of the best players in the country are U. S. citizens. Possibly one of the greatest strengths of U. S. soccer is the relationship between NASL and USSF. NASL has a staff of professional administrators and each club has its own front office staff. This network cooperates with local USSF Associations to support development programs. As professional soccer expands and draws increasingly more spectators, the clubs may be able to assist amateur soccer financially.

Nevertheless, the U. S. is not yet a major power in international competition, amateur or professional. The U. S. has not developed a perennial national squad of amateur or professionals who train together on a regular basis. Instead, the national team is selected close to the date of competition. The players on these teams vary from year to year.

Philosophies of coaching and officiating vary widely in U. S. soccer due to different rules of play, lack of a national coaching program (and concomitant lack of a consistent philosophy of play), and multiple sets of rules. Development of coaches and officials lags behind participant growth due to an underdeveloped national program and the extraordinary boom in U. S. soccer.

The U. S. national team requires adequate time to train and compete prior to major international competitions, which can work a hardship on many athletes. Early team selection and broken-time payments could assist in resolving this predicament. In order to support the growth in participation, more qualified coaches and officials are required to be certified and supported in a continuing quest for knowledge and experience.

USSF, the NGB, is an expensive organization to operate in proportion to the annual revenues from registration and other sources. It is made up of enthusiastic, but over worked volunteers who are supported by a small administrative staff. Further problems arise from member and non-member violations of FIFA regulations and the fact that programs such as those of AYSO are not affiliated with USSF.

At this writing, USSF does not have effective athlete input into the management of its affairs. Although a member of the current U. S. Olympic Team is eligible to join the USSF Council, no athlete has taken advantage of this provision.

USSF believes it needs a larger professional staff to enable it to live up to its own rules and to develop national teams. To do this it claims it needs significant funds. The Coca-Cola Company has allocated funds for U. S. Youth Soccer, but USSF has been slow to respond with full-time staff and programs. USSF is not short of technical information or energetic volunteers, but it is run by a small group of chief executives accustomed to running a smaller organization. U. S. soccer has not changed its management techniques in response to increased demand from a booming sport. Structurally, USSF has not mirrored changes in the growth of participation and interest in soccer. Definitive short and intermediate term plans, designed to combine all phases of development into a set of national objectives, seem to be required.

Finally, the continuing disputes in U. S. soccer need resolution. The non-affiliation with the national governing body of a major program such as that conducted by AYSO is detrimental to the sport's development. The ASL-USSF suit drains time and resources that could be better spent elsewhere, in areas of development, for example. Some form of settlement in these matters would appear to be necessary if the organizations involved cannot rapidly resolve their differences.

SPEED SKATING

In preparation for the 1976 Winter Olympic Games in Innsbruck, Austria, Soviet speed skaters began practicing on ice in late August 1975 at their marvelous, high-altitude facility at Alma Ata. The Dutch, West Germans, Norwegians, Japanese, and East Germans, each with several facilities to choose from in their homelands, started their pre-Olympic on-ice training in October. But American speed skaters, who had to rely on a single Olympics speed skating oval in West Allis, Wisconsin, had no assurances that their facility would open in October or even in November. Indeed, despite pleas from the skaters and USOC, it did not open until November 21st—just three weeks before the U.S. Olympic Trials and barely two months before the Olympic Games themselves.

The 10-year-old American speed skating oval had fallen victim to politics, mismanagement, disinterest, and neglect. The rink was under the jurisdiction of the Wisconsin State Fair Board, whose guiding responsibility, under state law, was not to lose money. Fair Board officials gave many people the impression that the Olympics and the youth development programs that might be encouraged were secondary; the Wisconsin Olympic-size speed skating oval must not lose money. Compressors and refrigeration equipment were not maintained. Proper design and shading that could have extended the season were by-passed from the start and never further considered as a cost-saving investment. Warming and changing facilities were inadequate when the rink was built and never improved. The major concern of the Fair Board and other state officials was that this "white elephant" might lose $10,000—$12,000 in the 1975-76 season.

As summer turned to fall and the rink remained closed, almost every American speed skater who wanted to compete in the 1976 Olympics was obliged to go to Europe to train, to overcome the edge European competitors were gaining. The cost to some 40 skaters and their two coaches: over $50,000. The gamble and expense paid off for some; fourteen of them made the U.S. Olympic Team, while only one skater who did not to go Europe was selected. And U.S. skaters had their most successful Olympics in 44 years, winning two Gold, two Silver and two Bronze Medals. The tiny speed skating contingent accounted for more than half the medals won by U.S. athletes in Innsbruck.

It should be added that when the West Allis facility did open, the management kept the rink closed in the mornings during the best training hours to save a few more dollars. This forced Olympic Team hopefuls into back-to-back practice sessions from 2 to 4 p.m. and from 4 to 6 p.m. But perhaps the biggest insult: the rink was closed in late January after the departure of the U.S. team, leaving skaters who might be future champions nowhere to practice. The 67 half-days the speed skating oval was open was by far the shortest season in its 10 years of operation.

The West Allis facility did lose $16,000 in its abbreviated 1975-76 season, despite a $12,000 subsidy from the U.S. Olympic Committee. (Another $8,679.02 raised by a Milwaukee radio station to support a continuing program at the rink was appropriated by the state to help cover the deficit.) The loss was still a pittance compared to costs forced on U.S. speed skaters and their families by having to go to Europe to train. Moreover, other skaters who might have made the team lost their opportunity because they couldn't afford to train in Europe.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

In spite of competitive success in the last few years, the U.S. speed skating program is in the early stage of its development. The retirement of several top skaters this year could produce another "drought" period.

The critical shortage of facilities echoes other problems in the sport:

- The national governing body, U.S. International Skating Association (USISA) is chronically short of funds, causing it to be dependent on USOC grants. As recently as 1975, athletes on the World Championships team were asked to chip in as much as $500 for travel expenses to help make ends meet.
- USISA is a closed, autocratic national association with a self-perpetuating, non-elected board.
- The sport has no national coach(es) and no continuing development and training programs. All coaching is done on a volunteer, come-when-you-can basis.
- All athlete recruitment and development, by default, is left to another organization, Amateur Skating Union (ASU), which governs American-style (mass start) speed skating.
- The result is a narrow participation base: fewer than 100 Olympic-style skaters in the U.S. compared to many times that number taking part in American-style speed skating.
- The sport receives almost no public or media exposure except during the Olympic Games. Spectators at national events are few, usually relatives of the athletes.

Events in International Competition

Men's speed skating has been an Olympic sport since the first Winter Games in 1924. There are five men's events in the Olympic Games: 500m, 1,000m (added in 1976), 1,500m, 5,000m, and 10,000m.

Women's speed skating was added in 1960. There are four events for women in the Olympics: 500m, 1,000m, 1,500m, and 3,000m.

A maximum of 12 may form the men's Olympic Team, but placements in each event in the previous world championship determines the actual number of entries. Individual skaters may qualify for more than one event, which also can reduce the total team size. The women's team has a maximum of eight members.

In addition to Olympic competition, two World Championships— one each for men and women— are held each year. Events are the same as in the Olympics except that there is no 1,000m event for men. Separate World Sprint Championships for men and women also are scheduled every year, with competitors racing the 500m and 1,000m distances twice. In both the world meets skaters with the best average times from all four races are declared overall champions.

Team size for these world championships varies. Placements in one year determine the number of entries the following year, up to a maximum of four skaters.

History of World Ranking

Speed skating, with 30 medals since 1924, has been the most successful U.S. sport in the Winter Games. United States skaters have won 11 Gold (8 men, 3 women), 12 Silver (6 men, 6 women), and 7 Bronze (3 men, 4 women) Medals in Olympic competition.

United States speed skaters consistently have placed high internationally since the early 1970s. United States women have won the all-around title in the World Sprint Championships each year since 1973. (United States men, however, have never won a sprint title or a World Championship title). In 1976, U.S. women placed first and second in the World Sprint Championships, and second in the World Junior Championships, having won three of the four individual races. This was the strongest U.S. showing ever.

United States men placed second and third in the 1975 World Sprint Championships, second in the World Junior Championships, and had one of their highest placements ever in the World Championships.

Traditionally, U.S. skaters have done well in the short distances, but not in the longer races. However, this is changing. In 1976, U.S. women set world records in both the 500 and 3,000-meter races

The principal world speed skating powers are the Soviet Union, Norway, Sweden, The Netherlands, East and West Germany and the United States.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

In 1966 the U.S. International Skating Association (USISA) was formed as the governing body for Olympic-style speed skating in this country. USISA was a splinter of the Amateur Skating Union (ASU) which until then had held the international franchise for Olympic-style skating even though most of its members were interested in pack-style skating.

(Olympic-style racing, a popular European sport, has few participants and fewer spectators in this country. Two skaters at a time circle a 400-meter outdoor ice track, racing not against each other but against the clock. Lane changes occur on each lap to equalize the distance. Eventual winners are not known until all the pairs have skated. Primarily a North American sport, pack races can be skated both indoors and outdoors. Skaters mass at the starting line and the pack usually stays together as skaters make the required number of laps, sprinting as they approach the finish. Strategy, and not the clock, usually determines the winner.)

USISA, recognized by the International Skating Union (ISU) in 1966, is run by a 34-member board of directors, including four officers.

Designed to be a self-perpetuating body, the original board was self-appointed, served four-year terms and elected officers from among its members. Vacancies are filled by co-optation. Elections are held every four years from a slate prepared by a three-man nominating committee, of which two must be board members. Any member of the association may nominate other candidates for the board. All committee members are appointed by the president, except the Olympic Speed Skating Committee, which is elected by the board. Until mid-1976 there were no women on the board, nor any competing or recent athletes. Now three women and three recent competitors serve on the board.

Although the general membership may attend board meetings, USISA by-laws give the president the power, with consent of a majority of the directors, to exclude other members and to hold executive sessions when he "deems it appropriate" to "discuss matters of interest." The board usually holds one of its meetings in conjunction with the annual convention, it is difficult for association members to know when these board meetings are to take place, since the by-laws state: "The Secretary shall give as much notice as is convenient, but at least one day's notice of such meeting . . . to . . . each Director. The Directors may waive notice of a meeting and convene a meeting at their convenience without notice. . ." Only one association member has asked to attend the mid-year meeting of the board, and that request was turned down.

Members are notified by mail of the annual meeting of the association, but the role given them is perfunctory. According to the by-laws: "From time to time, the Board, in its discretion may submit questions to the General Membership for a vote. Such vote shall be advisory in effect, with final decision on the question remaining with the Board."

USISA has no permanent office and is headquartered in the home of its president. The full board meets twice a year, once in conjunction with the national championships. Decisions in the interim are made by the officers.

USISA has approximately 250 dues-paying members, including individuals and clubs, but fewer than 100 are competing athletes. Membership is limited to those 14 years of age or older. Skating groups can hold dual membership in ASU and USISA.

Major USISA programs include: hosting two or three national competitions a year; sending teams to the senior and junior world championships; holding training seminars for athletes, raising funds; and generally promoting interest in speed skating, particularly in the Wisconsin area.

USISA's primary goals are:

— To promote construction of refrigerated, 400-meter skating ovals;

— To encourage and develop world-class athletes in Olympic-style skating; and

— To foster and develop public interest in speed skating.

Other Speed Skating Organizations

The Amateur Skating Union (ASU) continues to be the major association promoting pack-style skating both nationally and internationally. Some 75 clubs in 11 different states belong to ASU, as do 2,400 individual members.

Four ASU officers are elected by delegates to the national convention and serve for one year. Officers cannot hold the same office for more than two years. The president appoints a secretary-treasurer as well as chairmen and members of the more than 20 committees.

At the local level, ASU skating clubs provide ice time, volunteer coaching, time trials, and other assistance for young speed skaters. It provides the only development programs in the U.S. for beginning speed skaters; USISA takes pack-style skaters seeking international competition and retrains them in Olympic-style techniques.

USISA and ASU have a close working relationship. They hold a joint annual convention and each body appoints a representative to serve on the other's board of directors. There are mutual agreements for registration of athletes and the sanctioning of meets as well as frequent exchanges of meet officials. In addition, ASU pays USISA as annual assessment of $2,000.

Relationship to the International Federation

In 1966 ISU awarded USISA the international franchise under mutual consent from ASU. However, since there are limited funds available to defray expenses, USISA delegates to ISU meetings are confined to those who can afford the personal expense.

RESOURCES

Personnel

Speed skating has no paid administrative staff or even an office. All work in both Olympic-style and pack-style skating is done by volunteers. Until now, an all-volunteer 13-member USOC Games Committee was responsible for selecting and sending a team to the Olympics. Under the USOC reorganization plan now in effect, USISA will take over complete responsibility for Olympic speed skating development, team selection and Games preparation.

Coaching in the U.S. is strictly volunteer except for two Olympic coaches who received expenses but no salary for the year prior to the 1976 Olympics. There are no formally trained coaches for speed skating in this country. Most are either former athletes or parents of skaters who have become interested in the sport. Many top U.S. skaters train largely on their own or must go to Europe for proper coaching.

There are perhaps fifty speed skating officials in the U.S. Most of them have had little or no training except "on the job" at competitions. Few have had international experience.

Facilities and Equipment

A properly designed 400-meter track with adequate refrigeration equipment and shading against sun and wind costs $2-$3 million. The sole refrigerated 400-meter speed skating oval in the U.S. is in the suburbs of Milwaukee, Wisconsin. (An earlier speed skating oval built for the 1960 Winter Olympic Games in Squaw Valley, California, was paved over in 1964 to make a parking lot.) As mentioned above, the West Allis facility was open only 67 days during the 1975-1976 season due to management problems, neglected maintenance of equipment, a warm fall, and financial difficulties. There continues to be a chance that the Wisconsin facility will shut down altogether, leaving U.S. speed skaters nowhere to train.

Fortunately, after the 1976 season, the State turned jurisdiction over to the Department of Natural Resources. It is anticipated that this state agency will have both an improved budget and the interest to keep the facility in good operating condition and open to the public for as long a season as possible.

Some 1,400 indoor ice rinks in the country are open for extended periods, but none is large enough for athletes to develop proper techniques for Olympic-style skating. Although numerous lakes and flooded lots in the northern states are available for limited periods in the winter, their biggest drawback is that they, too, often are not large enough or are not properly maintained for practice. A new man-made lake at the Keystone ski resort in Colorado, which will be the site of the 1977 Ladies' World Championship, is being groomed as a possible high-altitude training facility for speed skaters. Lake Placid, New York, site of the 1980 Winter Olympics, is expected to build a refrigerated 400-meter track within the next two years.

Speed skaters' equipment is expensive. A good pair of speed skates cost upwards of $100 while one-piece stretch racing outfits can run $60 or more, and warmup suits $40. Skates and the best racing uniforms are available only by custom order in Europe.

Funding

Speed skating is one of a few sports that is almost totally dependent upon the generosity of the USOC to maintain any kind of development program, to field international teams and even to cover the operating deficit for its only facility.

USISA's financial summary for the fiscal year April 30, 1975 to April 30, 1976 is as follows:

Cash at beginning of year	$ 4,027.91
Revenues:	
Membership fees and ASU assessments	4,425.00
Donations	10,023.32
U.S. Olympic Committee grants and payments	66,023.32
Convention and seminar fees	3,201.48
Miscellaneous (travel reimbursements, interest, ticket sales)	4,742.97
TOTAL REVENUES	$88,416.09

NOTE: The USOC paid $17,838.30 in grants to USISA, $29,239.26 in direct payments for USISA-related activities, and another $19,206.54 for travel, uniforms, and other expenses incurred by the U.S. Olympic Speed Skating Team. USISA-generated income for the fiscal year came to $22,392.77, one-quarter of the total revenues.

Expenses:	
Administrative	
Convention/board meetings	$ 1,556.30
Sending delegates to ISU Congress	1,177.00
Hospitality (entertaining officials in Innsbruck)	913.50
Olympic Games Tickets	1,421.40
Office Supplies	1,278.00
USOC and ISU dues	633.74
Miscellaneous	620.46
	$ 7,610.40

Competitions	
U.S. and World Championships (a good portion of this is paid by USOC)	$28,805.30
Olympic Speed Skating Team (paid by USOC)	19,206.54
	$48,011.84
Development (USOC underwrites most of this)	$24,165.81
Facilities (Rental at West Allis Rink; paid by USOC)	$12,000.00
Cash Balance—April 28, 1976	$ 1,378.79

NOTE: USISA receipts and expenditures fluctuate on a four-year cycle, coinciding with the quadrennial period of the Olympic Games, USOC contributions in the 1973-76 quadrennial were $95,950 more than two-thirds of which came the final year. In the same period, USISA revenues climbed from $16,970.30 in the USISA fiscal year 1972-73 to $22,392.77 in 1975-76.

Cost to Participants

Athletes must bear a number of costs related to the sport: $300-$400 a year for equipment; travel to competitions and seminars, which sometimes includes European training and travel; training costs (room and board) away from home; and ice rental fees or passes (usually $40.00 or more a season), entry fees, and membership dues. (USISA dues run $10; ASU members fees are $5.)

Officials and coaches incur costs attending two or three meetings and competitions a year. USISA spent $1,566.30 in fiscal year 1976 to defray costs to members attending board meetings and the annual convention, but no USISA funds are available to subsidize other participant costs, except to European competitions and ISU meetings. Even then, athletes, coaches, and officials have been called upon in some years to pay a substantial portion of their trip expenses.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

Almost all athletes who come into Olympic-style speed skating are converts from pack-style skating. Estimates indicate there are 2,400 American pack-style skaters and fewer than 100 Olympic-style skaters.

Most Olympic-style skaters live in the Northern tier of states in major metropolitan areas. The most visible centers of speed skating interest include: Milwaukee, Madison, Minneapolis/St. Paul, Chicago, upstate New York, Detroit, Cleveland, and St. Louis.

Athlete Development

All development of beginning skaters takes place in ASU clubs, while most development of Olympic-style skaters is undertaken by the individual athlete. From 1974 to 1976, a training and development program was conducted by the Milwaukee County Speed Skating Club.

Since 1967, USISA has held an annual one-week seminar for Olympic-style development. In the summer of 1975 this was extended to monthly training sessions led by the two Olympic coaches.

Coach Development

There are no programs, courses or clinics for speed skating coaches in the U.S. The system is to learn by doing.

Training of Officials

There is no formal course of systematic instruction for officials; usually the more seasoned officials instruct newcomers.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

All Olympic-style competition in this country is held in accordance with ISU rules.

Domestic Competition

USISA hosts only three major national competitions all at West Allis: the Holiday Open, U.S. Olympic Style and the U.S. Sprint Championships. In Olympic years, the U.S. Olympic Style is usually replaced by the Olympic Trials. The U.S. and Canada alternate hosting the U.S.-Canada Team Meet, which used to be held annually but has not been held since 1974.

The 10,000m race is contested only once every four years, to determine who will represent the U.S. in the Olympic Games; it has never been included as a championship event. The other eight events for men and women usually are held at most competitions.

A few other local and regional competitions are held, primarily on natural surfaces, weather permitting. Most domestic "competition" consists of weekend time trials at West Allis or on natural rinks.

International Competition

Major international meets are the Men's and Women's World Championships, the Men's and Women's World Sprint Championships, and the World Junior Championships. There are also several European invitational meets.

International teams usually are chosen immediately following a national championship. In most cases the top two or three skaters are chosen, depending on the number of entries to which the U.S. is entitled. Selection is done by the USISA board of directors. Although in most cases team members are chosen strictly by how they finished in the qualifying meet, if a qualifying race has been very close, a "skate off" may be held in Europe prior to the international meet to determine which skaters will actually compete. The practice of changing the criteria for team selection back and forth at the last minute has caused continuing controversy over the past few years, especially in the selection of the 1976 Olympic Team.

USISA said in its May 1975 bulletin, "The skaters believe that criteria and distances for selection (of the Olympic team) should be published early to avoid training and psychological problems." Further, the bulletin announced that "the past practice of selecting a squad and then eliminating through competition some squad members has been abandoned. All selected will skate (assuming good health and conduct attends their efforts)." However, when the actual trials took place, the electronic timing equipment that had been promised was not available, and the results in three races were close and inconclusive.

As a result, USISA officials announced at the trials and in a follow-up bulletin that final positions in three events would be filled by an elimination race to be held in Europe, January 29 and 30, 1976, just prior to the Olympics. USOC Speed Skating Committee members had voted 6 to 3 to make this change in selection. Then, after the team had arrived and was training in Europe, word arrived that four absent members of the speed skating committee had been polled by the USOC President and had voted along with the minority that there should be no "skate off," making the vote 7 to 6. The inexact hand-timed results from the trials were allowed to stand, determining who would skate in the Olympics. Team selection procedures had been changed twice in the process, leaving the skaters continually in the lurch. A number of heated complaints were made.

USISA also failed to enter one of its contestants in the 1976 Men's World Championships, held in August in The Netherlands. It had been decided in February at the Winter Olympics that the alternate would replace one of the selected team members. When the skater arrived in The Netherlands with the team, he was not allowed to skate because his name had not been listed on the official U.S. entry. This oversight will reduce the number of U.S. entries in the 1977 World Championships.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

United States speed skaters have made consistent and impressive showings in international competition and have been responsible for winning more medals in the Winter Olympic Games than any other groups of U.S. athletes. This success has been achieved in spite of the lack of support, competent organization and adequate training conditions in this country.

United States speed skating benefits from:

- A very small, dedicated group of athletes who are willing to sacrifice a great deal to accomplish their goals, and who have been inventive in seeking substitute training when on-ice practice has not been available;
- A fairly widespread ASU speed skating club system that introduces many youngsters to the sport; and
- A long history of sprint achievement and technique development.

However, the sport could make rapid strides in development if:

(1) Speed skating tracks were built in at least two or three regions of the country, in or near metropolitan populations;

(2) A national coach or coaches were hired to provide a continuous development program for skaters;

(3) ASU and USISA recognized their common interests and goals and merged to concentrate resources and volunteer help;

(4) The USISA board, or its successor, were opened up to annual, democratic elections of the membership and included women and athletes in decision-making positions;

(5) A continuous fund-raising program were initiated, with the goal of meeting all expenses of teams and coaches sent abroad for training or competition;

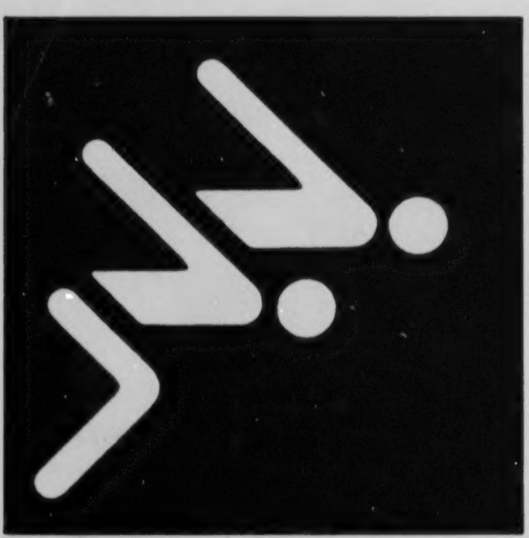
(6) A full schedule of formal, seasonal meets were established, to be held, if possible on a rotating basis in various parts of the country, with all events included on the schedule to promote and encourage participation in the long-distance races;

(7) Year-round skating clinics and seminars were held to meet the needs of national team members and potential team members;

(8) Team selection criteria were published well in advance—and adhered to—for every qualifying competition; and

(9) The U.S. were to host more international meets to increase public awareness and to encourage young athletes to take up the sport.

SWIMMING



Although the overall U. S. effort in swimming at the last four Olympics has been successful, the following chart illustrates the contradictory trends in the performance of U. S. women compared with U. S. men.

Percentage of Possible Olympic Swimming Medals Won by the U. S. at the last Four Olympics

	U. S. Women	U. S. Men
Tokyo	63	41
Mexico	62	58
Munich	41	58
Montreal	18	69

Once the dominant force in world swimming, American women were overtaken by a strong East German team and won only one Gold Medal in Montreal (the 4x100m relay). Concern has replaced confidence in the American competitive swimming program.

While U. S. men swimmers continue to mine Olympic Gold (collecting 12 of 13 first places in Montreal and setting 11 world records in the process), even they cannot rest on their laurels. "We're not that far ahead of the Russians," warns Mark Schubert, coach of the country's second largest club program (with almost 500 swimmers) in Mission Viejo, California. "They showed by far the most improvement in Montreal. They're only tenths of a second behind us."

The consensus among American swim coaches seems to be that the national program needs drastic revamping in order to keep pace with the rest of the world. "In our country you've got the AAU, NCAA, the high schools and the Olympic Committee," says Schubert. "If you set up one central organization for amateur swimming, you would have a place to channel everything."

Without considerable re-evaluation, according to concerned participants, U. S. women may be doomed to repeat the Montreal performance – the "Games to Forget" – in Moscow in 1980.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

Despite the decline in the Olympic Medal count of U. S. women, swimming is consistently one of our strongest suits in international competition. It also is one of the best endowed sports in the U. S. Age group programs,[1] pioneered by Carl Bauer of St. Louis and later run by Beth Kaufman of San Anselmo, California, have developed American youngsters since 1952 by exposing them to tough competition at young ages. Since 1973 Phillips Petroleum Corporation has made significent contributions to the U. S. program, primarily by reimbursing athletes for travel and other out-of-pocket expenses incurred in the course of competition. Thanks largely to Phillips' sponsorship, American swimmers have been able to compete more often overseas, gaining vital international experience.

Nevertheless, as indicated by the dramatic decline in U. S. women's Olympic performance, there is certainly room for improvement:

1. The organization of swimming lacks a coordinated national governing body that is responsible for communicating to coaches new

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[1] AAU programs for athletes 6 to 18 years old who compete within their peer groups (6-7, 8-9, etc.).

techniques for land and water training, for physiological and psychological testing, for initiating research in all areas of swimming, for coordinating and sanctioning all U. S. swimming competitions and swimming programs.

2. College programs for women, designed to encourage them to continue beyond the traditional teenage retirement, and programs tailored to individual needs are not widely available.

3. Too few Olympic-size indoor facilities are available for year-round long course (50m) training in areas other than Florida and California. These facilities should include scientific instruments to aid coaches' and doctors' research.

4. Dissemination of research is required in areas such as training techniques and required "dry-land" exercises to build strength and stamina.

Events in International Competition

Swimming has been on the Olympic calendar since 1896 when the 100m for men was contested. Women's swimming was introduced in 1912. Now it is one of the few Olympic sports in which men and women have an equal number of events (13 in Montreal) although men swim longer distances in two races:

Freestyle	100m, 200m, 400m, 800m (women), 1500m (men)
Butterfly	100m, 200m
Breaststroke	100m, 200m
Backstroke	100m, 200m
Medley	400m
Relays	400m Medley, 400m Free (women), 800m Free (men)

Team size for Olympic competition varies as some individuals compete in more than one event, but each country is entitled to three entries per individual event and one entry per relay event.

History of World Ranking

Modern swimming in this country dates from 1903 when Australian Sidney Cavill introduced the Crawl to the Olympic Club of San Francisco. For 25 years Cavill taught swimmers the stroke that is now called freestyle.

U. S. men swimmers rank first in the world while American women are second behind East Germany. Traditionally the U. S. has done extremely well in international competition, a reflection on the depth of the age group program as well as on training innovations devised by U. S. coaches.

The following chart shows U. S. performance in the Olympics from 1948 to 1976.

	Men					*Women*				
	# of events	*G*	*S*	*B*	*% of total*	*# of events*	*G*	*S*	*B*	*% of total*
1976	13	12	10	5	69	13	1	4	2	18
1972	15	9	9	8	58	14	8	5	4	41
1968	15	10	8	8	58	14	11	7	8	62
1964	9	6	3	2	41	8	6	4	5	63
1960	7	4	1	2	33	7	5	1	–	29
1956	7	1	1	3	24	6	3	2	1	33
1952	6	4	2	1	39	5	4	2	1	47
1948	6	6	4	1	61	5	2	2	–	27

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The AAU has been the NGB for U. S. men's swimming since 1888 and for women's swimming since 1914. However, swimming is only one of four aquatic sports under the AAU's aegis, all of which are the responsibility of one paid administrator at AAU headquarters in Indianapolis, Indiana. Recently the Competitive Swimming Committee hired an administrator to handle only AAU competitive swimming. This administrator, former swimming coach at Harvard University, is to hire an assistant.

In 1975 (according to AAU records of athletes who signed up for the insurance program), swimmers made up 46% of the AAU's total membership. Some AAU sources maintain that swimming may account for as much as 51% of the total. In either case, the question has arisen whether swimming receives AAU services commensurate with its membership numbers.

The Competitive Swimming Committee is composed of delegates from each AAU Association (58) and representatives from AAU allied members such as the American Swimming Coaches Association, the International Swimming Hall of Fame and the Armed Forces. United States representatives to FINA (the International Federation) and the Amateur Swimming Union of the Americas (ASUA) also serve on this committee. The NCAA is represented only through college coaches elected to the committee by the AAU. The NCAA does not have any official representatives. Each AAU association is entitled to one delegate to each Sub-Committee Section of the Competitive Swimming Committee: Administration, Age Group/Junior Olympic, and Senior Swimming. If an association has more than 500 registered swimmers, it may send two representatives to the Age Group/Junior Olympic and Senior Swimming Sections.

The Competitive Swimming Committee meets annually. Between meetings an Executive Committee is empowered by the Competitive Swimming Committee to conduct AAU swimming business. The Executive Committee is composed of the Chairman of the Competitive Swimming Committee; Chairmen of the Age Group/Junior Olympic, Administration and Senior Swimming Sub-Committee Sections and the Finance Sub-Committee; two delegates elected from the Competitive Swimming Committee, at least one of whom must be a woman; and one Athlete Representative. All serve one-year terms.

The Chairman of the Competitive Swimming Committee appoints chairmen of the various sub-committees (see the Organization Chart on the following page) except for the Athlete Representatives Sub-Committee which elects its own. Nine athletes are elected from three zones for staggered two-year terms and one representative at-large is elected for a one-year term. Athlete representatives elect one of their number to serve on each of the following sub-committees: Age Group/Junior Olympic, All-America Selection, Facilities Standards, International Competition (two representatives, one male, one female), Qualifying Standards, and Rules.

Goals of the Competitive Swimming Committee, interpreted by the Commission on the basis of interviews and observed behavior, are:

- the conduct of national championships in accordance with the rules for such competition;
- the continued success of U. S. swimming in international competition;
- the participation by leading U. S. swimmers in as many international competitions as possible; and
- democratic decision making in the awarding of championship sites, in making rule changes, and in determining team selection criteria.

A new Olympic swimming committee was established in 1976 (no official name had been chosen at this writing) in accordance with USOC reorganization procedures. The composition of the committee was developed by AAU swimming officials to be representative of all swimming interests, AAU and non-AAU alike. The AAU's first action was to elect 30 at-large members and five athlete representatives. Details of this committee's organization and functions have not been established. Non-AAU swimming groups are not yet represented, so the committee eventually could number as many as 50, with AAU delegates dominating. Since the NCAA has indicated by letter to the Swimming Chairman that it will not nominate the delegates to which it is entitled, the AAU is likely to invite the five members of the NCAA Swimming Rules Committee to serve as NCAA representatives.

It has become apparent in recent years that many in the sport are dissatisfied with the AAU. Those who take this view believe their organizational needs have outgrown the concept of an umbrella organization and that the AAU's approach is stifling the sport's growth. Specific sources of dissatisfaction were money management, lack of administrative support for committee chairmen, lack of self-government, representation by non-swimming people at multi-sport meetings and media negotiations, and the holding of the FINA franchise by a non-swimming organization (AAU).

In 1964, the NCAA recommended two approaches to changing the organizational structure of swimming in the United States:

a. a federated organization, independent of the AAU, to benefit men's swimming, diving and water polo, but not women's swimming, synchronized swimming or age group swimming; or

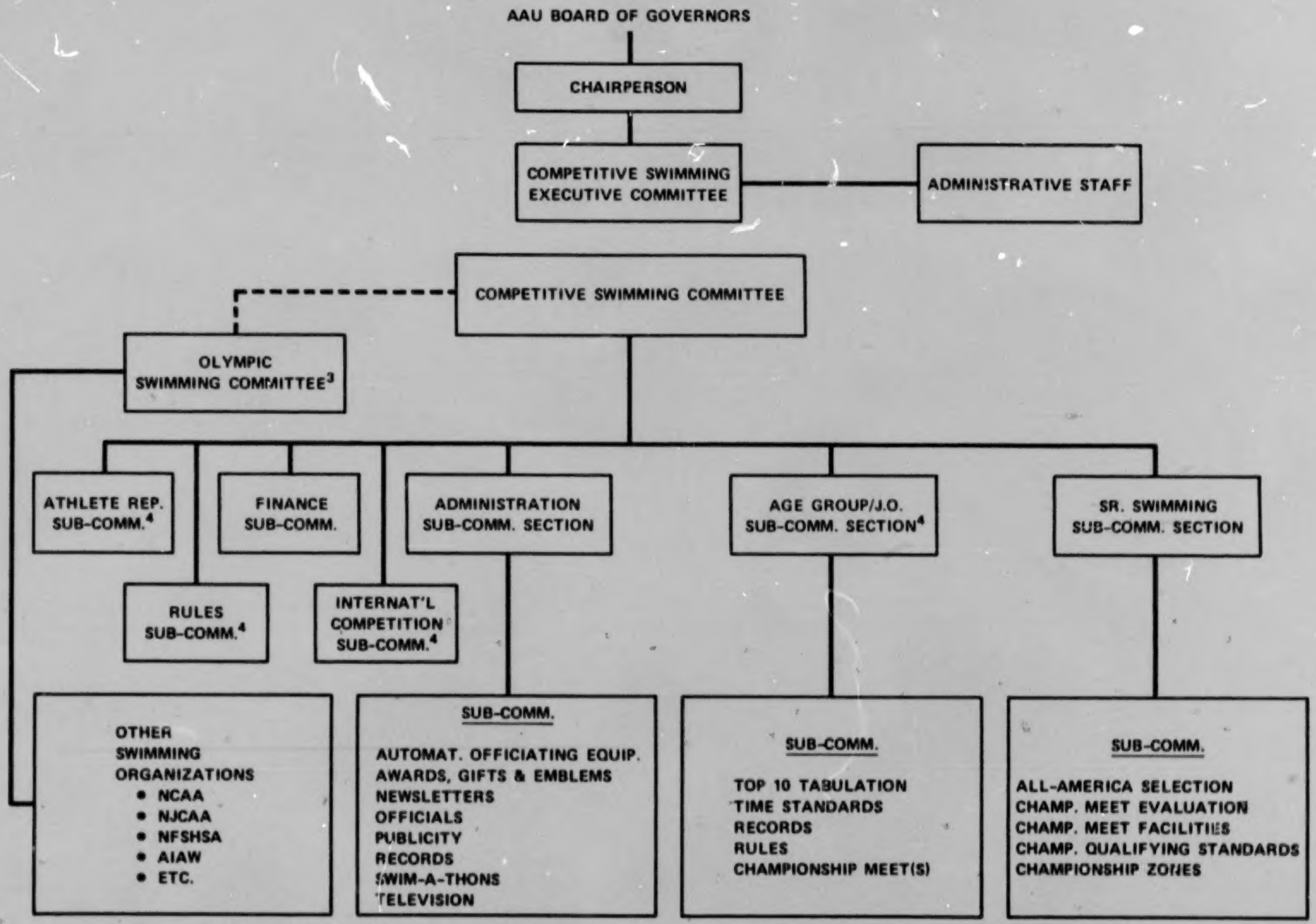
b. the U. S. Swimming Federation for six divisions within aquatic sports: men's swimming, women's swimming, diving, water polo, synchronized swimming and age group swimming. This suggestion was sponsored by the College Coaches Association and was to include all groups (AAU, NCAA, etc.) that sponsored aquatic sports programs.

Those who believe that an independent swimming organization should be formed to secure the franchise would have it composed only of individuals involved in swimming. According to advocates, the new organization would be able to expand the number of registered swimmers and would be self-sustaining through revenues generated from registrations, corporate sponsorship programs, swim-a-thons, etc.

AAU swimming committee members are particularly bitter about the AAU national office's use of the swimming team funds—those funds supplied by swimming registrations—for other AAU programs. In March, 1976 the AAU's liability to swimming amounted to more than $180,000 in the form of an interest-bearing note. However, the matter has been resolved and the AAU is reducing its liability over a three- to five-year interval.

Although the Competitive Swimming Committee acquired greater autonomy with the hiring of the Competitive Swimming Administrator, total independence is not a reality. Through a two-thirds vote of the members voting, the AAU Board of Governors (composed of repre-

AMATEUR ATHLETIC UNION SWIMMING ORGANIZATION CHART[2]


AAU BOARD OF GOVERNORS
CHAIRPERSON
COMPETITIVE SWIMMING EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF
COMPETITIVE SWIMMING COMMITTEE
OLYMPIC SWIMMING COMMITTEE[3]
ATHLETE REP. SUB-COMM.[4]
FINANCE SUB-COMM.
ADMINISTRATION SUB-COMM. SECTION
AGE GROUP/J.O. SUB-COMM. SECTION[4]
SR. SWIMMING SUB-COMM. SECTION
RULES SUB-COMM.[4]
INTERNAT'L COMPETITION SUB-COMM.[4]
OTHER SWIMMING ORGANIZATIONS
• NCAA
• NJCAA
• NFSHSA
• AIAW
• ETC.
SUB-COMM.
AUTOMAT. OFFICIATING EQUIP.
AWARDS, GIFTS & EMBLEMS
NEWSLETTERS
OFFICIALS
PUBLICITY
RECORDS
SWIM-A-THONS
TELEVISION
SUB-COMM.
TOP 10 TABULATION
TIME STANDARDS
RECORDS
RULES
CHAMPIONSHIP MEET(S)
SUB-COMM.
ALL-AMERICA SELECTION
CHAMP. MEET EVALUATION
CHAMP. MEET FACILITIES
CHAMP. QUALIFYING STANDARDS
CHAMPIONSHIP ZONES

[2] DEVELOPED BY PCOS STAFF FROM INTERVIEWS, AAU SWIMMING RULE BOOK AND AAU SUPERVISING COMMITTEE ORGANIZATION CHART.

[3] ESTABLISHED IN 1976 TO REPLACE USOC GAMES COMMITTEE. EXACT PROCEDURES AND COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES NOT YET DETERMINED.

[4] AT LEAST ONE ATHLETE REPRESENTATIVE SITS ON THESE COMMITTEES.

sentatives of all AAU sports interests) can overrule any committee action except the award of National Championships, or amendments to technical rules that do not conflict with the AAU Code or FINA rules.

The standard AAU response to calls for independence reiterates arguments that favor an umbrella organization. Theoretically, the AAU "family" supports relatively weak sports with revenues generated by relatively strong sports (e.g., track and field a decade ago, swimming today). In return, the strong sports receive AAU services which in theory an independent sports organization would have difficulty supplying, such as T.V. contracts, insurance, and printing services. However, it is argued that an independent swimming organization would be large enough to supply these services itself and that the AAU is better off servicing smaller sports. Furthermore, even the AAU network of volunteers and clubs is supplied on a sport-by-sport basis. Most volunteers join the AAU because of an interest in a particular sport or group of AAU sports. Therefore, it is likely that swimming volunteers would continue to work for the sport no matter who held the franchise. However, the AAU has a long and distinguished history as the NGB for swimming and it is not known whether FINA would grant the franchise to an independent organization.

Other Major Organizations

Several groups conduct significant swimming programs in the United States: the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA), Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA), Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) and the Phillips Petroleum Corporation. Many of the scholastic organizations are not members of the AAU. In any case, given that the scholastic swimming program is geared to interscholastic and intramural competition, these organizations would not benefit from joining the national governing body for swimming as it is presently structured.

The NCAA held its first intercollegiate swimming championships at the U. S. Naval Academy in 1924. Each year it holds men's championships a few weeks before each of the National AAU Championships. In addition, collegiate swimmers participate in conference championships, dual meets, and various regional and invitational meets.

Generally speaking, coaches from the school/college community also are involved in AAU club programs and cooperation is relatively good; AAU clubs usually have access to NCAA facilities through these coaches. However, some NCAA athletes have been denied leave to compete internationally during the school year, either on academic grounds or because of conflicts with the college swim team schedule. Nevertheless, many swimming coaches believe that the NCAA/AAU dispute is primarily track and field oriented and that swimming has not suffered too much from it.

Recently, however, the NCAA's Executive Director declined to fill the five positions allocated to the NCAA on the AAU's new Olympic swimming committee. The NCAA argued that it was not fairly represented in relation to the AAU. However, as this Commission has observed, NCAA college coaches are actively involved and in fact are the most dominant single group on AAU Competitive Swimming Committees. That the NCAA has not officially joined the new Olympic swimming committee will not impair the committee's ability to operate. The NCAA is arguing the principle of the matter, however, making this one instance in which the NCAA/AAU argument filters into a specific sport decision.

NAIA reports that 103 institutions had swimming programs in 1975-76, down from the 1972-73 figure of 133 colleges. NAIA holds national and regional championships annually. Although the NAIA program is separate from the AAU, the two groups have an Article of Alliance wherein NAIA is represented on the Board of Governors. In swimming, however, NAIA gets representation only if an individual employed by or in attendance at an NAIA institution is an AAU member and is elected to the Swimming Committee.

AIAW conducts a national swimming championship. With the implementation of Title IX of the Education Act of 1972 and the increase in athletic scholarships for women, this competition will become increasingly more important. Schools such as Indiana, UCLA, Boston University and Tennessee are providing full scholarships to women athletes in 1976-77. AIAW is not a member of the AAU and therefore is not officially represented in AAU swimming decisions.

NFSHSA reports that state high school swimming championships are conducted in all but 12 states. NJCAA holds an annual national championship in February and has established qualifying standards for both swimming and diving. Of 520 schools surveyed, NJCAA reported 528 women and 1,044 men participated in intercollegiate competition. NJCAA Swimming Coaches Association selected the "Coach of the Year" title and "Outstanding Swimmer" awards at the National Championships. Neither NFSHSA nor NJCAA has official AAU membership even though coaches and parents of both high school and junior college swimmers are involved in the AAU and AAU Swimming Committees.

YMCA sponsors an important and broadbased grass roots swimming program for youngsters throughout the country. The program ranges from beginners instruction to annual district, area, regional and national YMCA championships. YMCA and the AAU associations work closely together in conducting competitions. Many AAU champions developed through YMCA programs or through the use of YMCA facilities for training.

In addition to its financial contributions to AAU swimming, the Phillips Petroleum Company conducts a "learn to swim program" in conjunction with the Parks and Recreation Departments in selected inner city locations. Phillips has appropriated $25,000 for 10 clinics in 1977. At each clinic a grant of $1,000 is provided each Parks and Recreation Department to be used to purchase supplies, replace equipment, etc. Participants receive T-shirts, instructional materials and free tuition. Phillips has secured the services of leading coaches and swimmers for these clinics and plans to expand the program at the rate of $10,000 per year, up to $100,000.

Relationship with International Federations

The international governing body for swimming is the Federation Internationale de Natation Amateur (FINA). FINA is responsible for conducting the Olympic aquatic events and the World Aquatic Championships (which are held every four years). The U. S. sends delegates to annual FINA conventions and has had a major role in most FINA policy decisions. FINA establishes the rules of eligibility and of competition for all aquatic disciplines. Each discipline has a technical committee that reports to the FINA Bureau.

One U. S. delegate is sent to the International Swimming Committee, a technical committee of FINA. For the quadrennial 1973-76, Dr. Harold Henning of the U. S. was president of the FINA Bureau. The U. S. is entitled to two FINA representatives. For the quadrennial 1977-80 the two representatives at the FINA Bureau will be Robert Helmick, secretary of FINA, and Dr. John A. Bogert. In addition, Kenneth Treadway represents the U. S. on the Swimming Technical Committee. Dr. Henning, as immediate past president, will also serve on the Bureau during this interval, giving the U. S. four representatives in all. The next FINA congress will be held in Moscow in 1980 at the time of the Olympic Games.

The Amateur Swimming Union of the Americas (ASUA) is the organization responsible for conducting Pan American Games aquatic events. The U. S. is well represented on this organization. ASUA is a member of FINA and conducts its events in accordance with FINA rules and regulations.

The only case of a major dispute involving FINA and the U. S. was over a 1973 swimming trip to the People's Republic of China. The Chinese extended an invitation through the U. S. Department of State to send an American team to participate in a swimming exhibition. The individuals selected were retired amateur swimmers who felt they should accept the honor. FINA and the AAU claimed jurisdiction in the matter and, as a result of the trip, the AAU suspended three persons for knowingly attending a non-sanctioned swimming meet. As the People's Republic of China is not a member of FINA and as athletes cannot compete with non-FINA member countries, the AAU was forced to comply with FINA rules and to suspend the athletes involved. The athletes claimed that they were not subject to FINA jurisdiction because a) they were retired competitors, and b) the meet was an exhibition and not a competition. FINA is now attempting to relax the interpretation of its rule regarding transactions with non-member countries and it is hoped that future controversies may be avoided.

Personnel

Until recently, AAU swimming shared one administrator with three other aquatic disciplines. The hiring of a full-time administrator for swimming should improve swimming administration somewhat. (However, the other aquatic disciplines could suffer as they will have to share administrators from other AAU sports who are already over-burdened.) All other AAU swimming workers are volunteers, generally coaches, parents and ex-swimmers. The school/college community for the most part has adequate administrative staff for interscholastic and intercollegiate programs.

The AAU counts perhaps 700 coaches in its club programs, most of whom also are affiliated with schools or colleges. There is no certification procedure for coaches in the U. S. Club coaches who are not affiliated with a school or college generally are ex-swimmers.

There is no certification procedure for swimming officials in the U. S. Meet sponsors are responsible for selecting persons to officiate at swim meets. However, the U. S. does have 10 to 12 individuals who are recognized by FINA as qualified to judge at FINA competitions. These individuals are selected on the basis of number of years of officiating at national competitions.

Facilities/Equipment

There has been a tremendous increase in the number of swimming pools in this country since 1948. According to the Swimming Pool Industry Market Report, 1976, residential pools increased from 2,500 in 1948 to 171,000 in 1960 to 1,163,500 in 1975. Club pools numbered 55,250 in 1975, while municipal and school pools numbered 46,350 and 29,400 respectively. Total number of pools – including 193,150 hotel, motel and apartment pools, and 42,750 miscellaneous – came to approximately 1,530,400 in 1975.

Industry sources suggest that a realistic estimate of pools suitable for competitive swimming would be about 10% or 153,000. However, access to these pools at times suitable for training is often a problem. Many AAU club swimmers generally must contend with overcrowded and over-chlorinated pools since most municipal pools cater to recreational swimmers in public and parks programs. Collegiate swimmers, on the other hand, usually have access to good competitive facilities at suitable hours for training.

Despite the increase in numbers of pools in the country, there are few places large enough to stage major competitions. Only five facilities in the U. S. can accommodate more than 5,000 spectators.

Other facilities vital to a world-class athlete's training regimen include indoor equipment such as that required for dry-land exercises. College programs and the larger swim clubs provide these facilities to their athletes.

Finance/Funding

Theoretically, AAU swimming has $76,000 available to it: more than 152,000 registered swimmers contribute 50¢ per athlete to AAU House Administration for swimming (sports participation fee). One question raised by athlete representatives is, "Do we get $76,000 worth of services from the AAU?" AAU swimming officials contend that their sport has been subsidizing or funding other AAU operations for some time. These officials report that in 1975 the AAU borrowed a large sum from the Competitive Swimming Committee's team fund for general operations. The Swimming Finance Sub-Committee has reached an accord with the national AAU administration whereby the AAU will reduce this liability over a period of two to three years and pay interest on the unpaid balance.

For the year ending June 30, 1976 the balance in the Competitive Swimming Committee's fund was $123,016.21. The Competitive Swimming Committee savings account balance was $91,921.81. The Finance Sub-Committee chairman reported to the AAU convention in October 1976, that "the Union (AAU)... could not meet the obligation of this debt ($123,016.21) at this time." [2]

The AAU does not publish its annual financial statements in a manner that permits determination on a sport-by-sport basis of the sources and uses of funds. However, the Commission has reviewed sample monthly international travel fund balances for swimming. The following list of sources of funds, which we do not believe is exhaustive, was developed from available information and should provide a reasonable approximation.

AAU SWIMMING SOURCES OF FUNDS
Estimates for 1975/76
Supplied by AAU National Office and USOC

Description	*Amount*
Registration	$ 76,430
Competitions	47,690
Phillips Petroleum Sponsorship	150,000
USOC Development	135,700
Swim-athons (ISHOF)	58,000
T.V. Allocation	10,000
Interest Income	23,870
Other	16,452
	$518,142

The USOC and Phillips funds are appropriated for specific purposes and forwarded on an expenses-refunded basis. Registration funds go toward the "swimming team fund" (50%) and to AAU general administration (50%).

Other sources of income for which specific information was not available include: swim-athons donations, swimming's share of T.V. revenues, swimming's share of AAU merchandising revenues, sanction fees, and national championships and international events ($50,000 approximately). In 1975/76 the AAU reported the following items of expenditure for swimming:

Competitions	$285,227
Administration	32,912
Development	42,918
	$361,057

Phillips Petroleum recently agreed to renew its contract with the AAU to sponsor certain swimming programs. The renewed contract continues through 1980, at the end of which time Phillips will have contributed $1,200,000 to AAU swimming or an average of $150,000 per year for eight years. The new Phillips contract provides for the following:

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[2] Chairman, Finance Sub-Committee, Competitive Swimming Committee, October 1976.

a. $52,000 toward U. S. AAU swim teams for international competition. This applies to U. S. trips abroad and for competitions in the U. S.

b. $31,000 for each of two National Championships: Indoor and Outdoor. Phillips reimburses athletes for their air fare on the following basis:

   – full fare for the first eight finishers per event; and

   – half fare for the second eight finishers per event;

   – quarter fare to the balance of the competitors, provided funds are available.

c. $10,000 to the AAU to assist its advertising campaign.

d. $15,000 to support national championships – medals and awards, promotion, organization expenses, etc.

e. $7,000 to cover the travel, room and board of athletic representatives and members of the AAU Rules Committees for meetings.

f. $4,000 for four college scholarships, two for men and two for women, of $1,000 each, to be awarded to the highest point scorers at each of the National Indoor and Outdoor Championships. Funds go directly to the athlete's chosen college and in no way prejudice his/her amateur status.

Under the previous AAU agreement with Phillips, the international travel fund provided some benefits to the U. S. diving team. During the period 1973-75, U. S. divers received about $25,000 from this source. Under the new agreement, U. S. divers will no longer receive Phillips' funds.

Except for the AAU advertising program, the Phillips funds are not given to the AAU nor are they included in the financial statements. Individuals are reimbursed for actual expenditures. Athletes submit their expenses to the AAU and refunds are forwarded by Phillips directly to the athletes.

The Phillips Petroleum Company has a history of sponsoring amateur sports programs. The company believes it has an obligation as a corporate citizen to fund healthy recreational and educational activities. Although the company does advertise its involvement with the AAU and swimming, it views its contribution as an educational program, complementary to its main marketing strategy.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

A recent survey published by A. C. Nielsen Company rated swimming as the most popular American pastime, estimating 103 million people swam in 1975. It is certainly the largest of the AAU sports, accounting for approximately 51% of the total AAU membership.

The AAU age-group program instituted in 1952 provides competition for athletes in four age groups: 10 and under, 11-12, 13-14 and 15-18. The AAU does not have accurate figures but estimates total participation in 17 Junior Olympic sports as between five and 10 million; swimming participation is estimated at two million.

In 1971-72 the NCAA reported that swimming was one of its top ten growth sports; in 1972, 24% of NCAA athletes were swimmers, up from 22% in 1967. Varsity swimming programs at 382 NCAA institutions in 1972 involved 8,667 atheletes.

Women's intercollegiate swimming programs were conducted at 215 AIAW member institutions in 1975-76, involving approximately 3,000 athletes; and at 20 junior colleges involving 528 women. Forty-two junior colleges had intercollegiate competition for men, with 1,044 participants.

NAIA reports about 2,266 swimmers were involved in varsity competitive swimming in 1975-76, down from the 1972-73 figures of 2,926 athletes. NFSHSA reported 114,645 boys and 73,946 girls involved in inter-scholastic swimming in 1974-75. This represented 4,062 and 2,735 schools, respectively.

In addition to varsity programs, intramural swimming is conducted at 331 NCAA institutions, involving 45,049 men, and at 197 AIAW institutions, involving 16,676 women. Men's intramural swimming was ranked eighth and women's fourth for all NCAA sports.

Athlete Development

World-class swimmers ordinarily train seven hours a day, five or six days a week, 12 months a year. This obviously precludes holding down a full-time job and, in fact, most top U. S. swimmers are in school.

Athletes who show promise often must travel some distance, or live away from their families, in order to get good coaching. One estimate of the cost to a parent of putting a swimmer through a high-level competitive program is $2,500 to $3,000 annually (including coaching fees, travel, food, entry fees and miscellaneous expenses).

Compared with countries like East Germany, the U. S. lags in harnessing scientific and medical advances to improve the sport, but at least one club (Mission Viejo) began a daily blood test program prior to the 1976 Olympic Trials to assist in determining the best workloads for individual swimmers. Athletes paid $4 a day for the test (which would normally cost $12 to $15 apiece).

Coaches' Development

The American Swimming Coaches Association (ASCA) has approximately 700 dues-paying coaches and is the largest organization for swimming coaches in the world, attracting both domestic and international members. Its full-time paid Executive Director organizes the ASCA annual convention and composes a monthly newsletter which disseminates a great deal of technical and general news.

ASCA holds clinics several times a year to demonstrate new training techniques. These clinics are also a forum in which coaches can discuss some of their training experiments. There is no certification program and ASCA does not plan to create one. Coaches in the U. S. "have arrived" once their club teams, or individual athletes, achieve notable performances.

Recently, some U. S. women athletes have followed their male teammates and become swimming coaches. Jane Barkman Tyler, a member of the 1968 and 1972 U. S. Olympic teams and a member of the U. S. team which travelled to China in 1973, is now head coach of women's swimming at the University of Tennessee where athletic scholarships will be offered to women for the first time in 1976-77.

Officials' Training

There is no formal training for swimming officials in the U. S. The AAU Rulebook and a column in "Swimming World" keep athletes and officials informed of rules and developments, but officials have no consistent source of technical knowledge of the rules of competition or of FINA/AAU rules for swimming strokes.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

All U. S. swimming competitions are conducted using AAU rules which, at times, have not coincided with FINA rules. FINA changes its rules at a slower rate than does the AAU, which has been extremely innovative in bringing about technical rule changes and modifications.

However, the AAU must enforce FINA eligibility rules even if it does not agree with them. For instance, an amateur who competes in Masters swimming competitions runs the risk of being declared a professional if a professional swimmer is entered and swims in the same race as the amateur. A FINA rule states that amateurs cannot compete with professionals and retain their amateur status. AAU representatives to FINA have tried, unsuccessfully, to change this FINA rule.

Domestic

Major domestic competitions are the AAU National Championships (Indoor and Outdoor), the NCAA National Championships (Indoor), and the Olympic Trials. The last is considered by some to be the toughest of all swimming events. It has historically been more difficult to be selected to the U. S. Olympic Swim Team than it is to qualify for the final of an Olympic Swimming Event.

International

In addition to the Olympics and the Pan American Games, the international competitive schedule includes the World Swimming Championships held every four years, the World University Games held every four years, and various dual meets and tours.

Team Selection

For international competition (except Olympic, Pan American and World Championships), the AAU selects its teams, managers and coaches from a roster developed by the International Competition Sub-Committee. Athletes are ranked according to their performance at the AAU National Outdoor Championships. This procedure is well-known to athletes and coaches and the ranking is created for one year only.

Team size can vary from two to 14 athletes, depending on the invitation and the Swimming Committee's financial ability and willingness to authorize additional swimmers to go. Generally, the AAU sends a complete contingent to any event approved by the International Competition Sub-Committee.

The Olympic team is selected at the Olympic Trials. The Pan American Games and World Championship teams are selected through Pan American or World Championship Trials combined with national championships.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In 1956, despite some good individual performances, the U. S. swim team was clobbered by Australia and Japan. Since that Olympiad, however, U. S. men and women swimmers have dominated international swimming. In 1976, U. S. men asserted their superiority dramatically, capturing 12 of 13 possible Gold Medals, 27 of 56 total medals and setting 11 world records. United States women, on the other hand, were outperformed for the first time since 1960 by a remarkable East German team. This has caused serious concern among leading coaches who feel the U. S. program should undergo some drastic revision. Major problems in the U. S. swimming system are:

1. Many in swimming continue to believe that the sport has outgrown the support afforded by an umbrella organization like the AAU. Swimmers are responsible for about half of the AAU's income (from registration fees), but claim they do not receive that amount of service from the AAU.

   In 1975, due to lack of full-time professional administration, the AAU Board of Governors agreed to let the Competitive Swimming Committee hire its own administrator. Although it is anticipated that this person will considerably improve swimming administration, another alternative might be for a separate swimming organization to be established to manage swimming matters independent of any other body.

2. Swimming has achieved more autonomy than it had in previous years with the segregation of its funds into a swimming fund and the hiring of their own administrator. However, the AAU swimming committee is managed in much the same way as other AAU sports (see the chapter in this volume on the AAU).

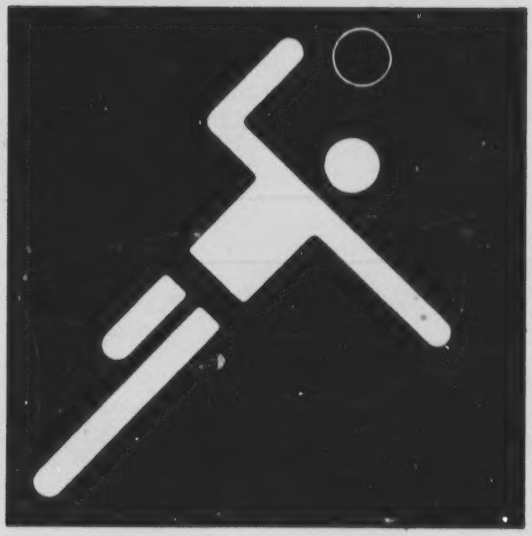
3. Although the situation is improving, American women lack incentives to continue beyond the traditional early retirement age. To encourage women to continue to swim competitively, college scholarships and more developed collegiate programs for women are necessary. Most of the U. S. team in Montreal were pre-college age and these athletes could improve their times in college under the right conditions.

4. Unlike other leading swimming countries, the U. S. has no coordinated program for physiological and psychological research and American coaches lag behind in certain training techniques. Improved communications between coaches and those in the field of sports medicine would alleviate this problem, particularly if the two groups worked together on funded research programs. Facilities are needed to handle physiological tests of athletes, in both training and competitive situations, and to analyze techniques as well as mental and physical reactions.

5. Competitive swimmers in the club system often have to compete with recreational swimmers for the use of suitable training facilities. A concerted effort is needed to encourage local communities to give competitive swimmers adequate access to available pools at times suitable for training.

6. Several elements act to constrain further moves toward independence: the long tradition of the AAU as the governing body for swimming is difficult to overcome, both domestically and internationally, and it is not known whether FINA would grant the franchise to another organization. In addition, swimming revenues go into AAU funds and would be difficult to separate were a swimming federation created.

TEAM HANDBALL



The American public sorely needs an introduction to team handball because everyone thinks it's played with a small black ball hit against two or four walls at the local "Y." It is not.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

On a scale of 1 to 10, the vital signs of team handball in the U.S. fall between 0 and 1. Of the things required for athletes to perform competitively at the Olympic level, team handball can boast:

- — limited access to adequate facilities;
- — no trained coaches, only one trained official (from Sweden);
- — 168 registered athletes (120 men, 48 women);
- — a national governing body that operates out of the president's basement;
- — no development programs beyond a meager one for elite level players;
- — no media exposure and, hence, no public awareness of the sport;
- — non-existent communication between athletes and the governing body; and
- — no elite-level competition in U.S.

That the sport somehow manages to stay alive in this inhospitable environment is a testament to the determination of its devotees.

Events in International Competition

Developed in Germany at the turn of the century (Denmark also claims the distinction of inventing it), outdoor team handball was demonstrated at the 1936 Olympics in Berlin. It was not seen again on the Olympic roster until 1972 when an indoor version was added to the Munich Games. Team handball for women was added in 1976.

A hybrid game combining elements of soccer, basketball and field hockey, the sport is played on a court approximately one-third larger than a basketball court, with a soccer-like ball six inches in diameter. Playing rules are similar to those in soccer except that the ball is thrown instead of kicked and may not be handled below the knee. The ball is small enough to be palmed and is usually thrown with one hand.

History of World Ranking

In addition to Olympic competition, team handball holds an annual World Championship (except in Olympic years). From 1938, when the first World Championship was held in Germany, until 1975, team handball was exclusively for men. The U.S. first entered a team in 1961 and has placed consistently between 11th and 16th. The International Handball Federation (IHF) held the first World Championship for women in 1975. U.S. women finished eleventh. In the 1972 Olympics the men placed 14th and were 10th in the Montreal Games, while the women did not qualify for Montreal (See section on Competition).

In the last decade Eastern European nations and the USSR have dominated the sport. The top teams today are the USSR, Rumania and Yugoslavia.

Team handball is not on the Pan American Games schedule.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The U.S. Team Handball Federation (USTHF), formed in 1959 by a group of clubs in the New York City area, is recognized by IHF as the U.S. franchise holder. USTHF is a member of the USOC and of the American Handball Federation, a new organization composed of Western Hemisphere countries that play team handball. Since 1969, when it was learned that the sport would be included in the next Olympics, USTHF's primary goals have been to field a national team to qualify for the Olympics and to promote the sport in the U.S. through the success of that team.

In November 1975, USTHF called a special meeting to revise its constitution, orginally written in 1967. The revision is intended to allow for the growth of the sport by including representatives from other organizations (such as the NCAA and the AAU) which may begin programs in team handball. It is also intended to delegate development efforts by creating chairmen to supervise clubs in each state.

The revised constitution divides membership into six categories:

Group A — state organizations (one rep. from each state);

Group B — national organizations that conduct substantial team handball programs of their own, e.g., NCAA and the Boy Scouts (one rep. per organization);

Group C — individual teams where no state organization exists (one rep. per team); team);

Group D — individual members;

Group E — businesses; and

Group F — other organizations.

Individuals have no vote unless they represent a team or organization (Groups A, B, and C). Group A members are allowed one vote per team registered in that state association. Group B members are allowed one vote for each registered school or team in that organization. Group C is allowed one vote per team. Groups D, E, and F have no vote.

Candidates for the Board of Directors must be "delegates or members of member organizations." No individual or athlete representing himself/herself is eligible to be a candidate. Board members may serve unlimited two-year terms. USTHF Congress as a whole elects 18 board members while each Group B organization may elect or appoint its own board member. As Group B registration increases, so will the total number of directors.

Athletes, on the other hand, are limited to two representatives on the Board, one from each of the two national teams. This number will not increase in proportion to the growth of the Congress as a whole.

The Board of Directors elects a President who also serves as Chairman of the Board. The President appoints all members and chairmen of the standing committees (publicity, development, coaching, fund raising and finance, competitions, and rules). The Board also elects from its members two Vice-Presidents (one for women, one for men), a secretary and treasurer.

In addition to electing its officers, the Board of Directors elects six members-at-large, who have one vote each on the Board. Duties of the Board include approving the annual budget, annually electing the Executive Committee, filling vacancies on the Board and Executive Committee, and directing the work of all committees including the Executive. It has the right to remove committees or their members in cases of "serious violation of the federation's interests."

Honorary Presidents of the federation are appointed by the Board of Directors. They have a seat and a vote on the Executive Committee, and act as advisors (without vote) to the Board of Directors. Members of the Executive Committee—the elected officers and appointed standing committee chairmen—are elected for one-year terms by the Board of Directors. This committee supervises all USTHF committees and can overrule decisions of all committees except the Court of Justice. It also appoints the coaches for the two national teams.

The Court of Justice consists of five members, elected for two-year terms by the Board of Directors. It rules on the constitutionality of all USTHF actions or resolutions and acts as a court of final appeal on decisions made by the Playing Rules and Referees Committee. All decisions are final, but are subject to the pardon of the Board.

Duties of the Congress as a whole include election of the Board, the setting of membership fees and making amendments to the constitution or bylaws.

(Through 1976 the Executive Committee appointed and the USOC approved members of the two Olympic Games Committees, one for men and one for women. The Games Committees now have been dissolved and their functions absorbed by USTHF.)

Elections under the new constitution will take place at the next federation meeting, scheduled for January 1977. The last elections were held in August 1972, and no meeting of the general membership has been held since then. Because active membership in the federation is almost non-existent below the Executive Committee level, team handball essentially has been run by one person: USTHF President, Dr. Peter Buehning, who has held office since 1959 and has administered the sport from his home.

USTHF communication with the membership at large is sadly lacking. There is no newsletter or other informational publication; teams feel no need to contact the federation after the initial request for playing rules; requests for information about other teams often go unanswered or are answered months later. Attendance at Congress meetings is erratic since meetings are held in New York or New Jersey and the cost of travel prohibits wide participation. The roster of teams participating in the national championships and the addresses of national team members suggest that the sport is played in areas outside New York and New Jersey, e.g., Colorado, Oregon, California, Georgia, Kansas and Ohio. Another reason for non-attendance cited by past USTHF members is a growing sense of futility among persons not in executive positions who feel their suggestions and opinions are ignored. The administrative hierarchy seems entrenched and unreceptive to innovative suggestions.

Other Major Organizations

The Explorer Scouts and, to some extent, the U.S. Army have programs in team handball. Neither group is a USTHF member although the federation sends a representative to the biennial Scout Olympics to conduct clinics and hold competitions. It is hoped that the Scouts will join USTHF under the new organizational structure.

Since 1969 the Army has had team handball programs at bases and other installations, as well as in the Army Champs, a youth program conducted by reserve corps in communities around the country. This activity was due primarily to the interest of General William Westmoreland. Since his retirement in the early 1970s, the program has received diminishing emphasis although several teams are still active and an All-Army team participates in the national championships each year.

The Army Champs program recently has been reactivated in many communities. Both Army programs, base level and youth, have produced the core of team handball players and coaches in the U.S. A majority of the 1972 and 1976 men's Olympic squads were then or had been in the Army, and had learned the game there. Most school and community programs initiated after the 1972 Games were begun by veterans who wanted to continue to be involved in the sport.

Relationship with International Organizations

USTHF has a good working relationship with the International Handball Federation (IHF) although, as a developing nation in the sport, U.S. influence on the international scene is limited. However, by gathering support from other developing countries and Western Europe USTHF President was able to get a modification of competition rules passed by IHF congress. The new rule scheduled Olympic qualifying matches for women in the developing countries (Africa, Japan, U.S.) to be held just before the Montreal Games, allowing the women several additional months to prepare, (The qualifying games originally were scheduled for the previous winter.)

Five countries in the Western Hemisphere formed an organization in 1974 called the American Handball Federation. President of AHF is Dr. Peter Buehning, President of USTHF. The purpose of this federation is to develop team handball throughout North and South America, to promote the addition of team handball to the Pan American Games roster and to organize qualifying matches for the team handball World Cup Games and for the Olympic Games. Current members are the U.S., Canada, Mexico, Argentina and Brazil. Asia and Africa each have formed similar federations.

RESOURCES

Personnel

Few, if any, coaches in the U.S. today are trained to teach team handball at the elite level. Coach of the U.S. women's team is USTHF President, while coach of the men's national team is a former player who is not expected to continue after 1976.

There are no accredited officials in the U.S. except for one resident Swedish official who is called upon from time to time to assist at competitions. Officiating at the national championship and at all other competitions in this country is done by coaches and players who know the rules.

Finance/Funding

The major portion of team handball resources comes from grants made by the USOC to the two Games committees. USOC grant for the quadrennial 1973-76:

Development	$ 47,600
Team Preparation	$103,400
Extended Team Prep. last few months before games	$ 39,400
Olympic Qualifications	$ 49,600
Committee Expenses	$ 2,021
Total	$242,021

An accounting from the USOC shows the following expenditures in the first three years of the quadrennial (1973-76).

Food and Housing	$ 26,618
Transportation	94,212
Supplies and equipment	6,809
Other	6,414
Total	$134,053

USOC funds are used exclusively to field and train the two national teams. No money is spent for development of the sport below the national level. The large sums spent on transportation indicate the extent to which athletes must travel within the U.S. to training sites and to departure points for travel abroad. Trips to Europe and Scandinavia are an essential part of training because there is no elite level competition for the national teams within the U.S.

USTHF is the only sports governing body that was unable to supply the Commission with a financial statement of any kind. However, interviews with several members of the federation indicate that USTHF has few sources of income aside from the USOC. Some revenue is gained from membership fees, sale of rule books, rental of films and contributions (to individual team members) from private corporations and individuals. No fund raising is done by the federation. (Team members seek funds in their local communities to help defray the cost of their travel and lodging.)

Facilities and Equipment

A team handball court is about one-third larger than a basketball court and its size is a problem. In informal competition, allowances are made for small courts, but in training for national and international competition a regulation court is essential. There are approximately fifty courts that have been permanently taped to accommodate team handball, but no courts have been built specifically for the game. The national teams, especially the men's team, have had difficulty gaining access to playing areas large enough for a temporary handball court. First priority for gyms goes to a school's physical education program and then to more lucrative sports such as basketball and volleyball.

The national team has not received special treatment, either in priority for court time or in cost. Rental of a gym for one night ranges from $100 to $225. Consequently, the relative cost of a facility—rather than its suitability for the sport—often determines where the team will practice. From time to time military and college facilities have been opened to the national teams through the influence of individual team members or the team manager but these are most often on a one-time-only basis. College facilities are provided in return for exhibition games and clinics by the national team; access to military facilities is acquired through the influence of the men's team manager, a civilian working for the Army sports.

Equipment for team handball is relatively inexpensive:

Practice ball	$17 - $27
Leather competition ball	$26 - $28
Goals	$380 - $432
Nets	$50 - $85

However, about $35 to $40 in special gym tape is needed to modify a basketball court to accommodate team handball, and since the national teams must put down tape each time they play in a new facility, this cost mounts steadily.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

In 1959 the team handball federation consisted of perhaps a dozen clubs in the New York area. In the years prior to the 1972 Olympics perhaps 600,000 people were exposed to team handball through Army clinics and the Army Champs program. The number has decreased considerably since then with the Army's de-emphasis of the sport, the relative inactivity of the Army youth programs and the absence of any civilian (USTHF) programs.

Team handball is played in some schools and colleges across the country. An athlete only must register with the federation in order to enter the national championships, so USTHF does not have accurate records of how many people play the sport. Registered athletes in May, 1976 totalled 168 (120 men, 48 women). Membership has declined since 1973 (when it was approximately 500) due largely to the discontinuation of a newsletter which had been one means by which scattered participants could keep in touch with each other and with the federation. A rough estimate places the number of participants at about 5,000.

Athlete Development

Below the national level development is sporadic. Finding competition is a major problem for existing teams. Intra-squad games become such a bore that interest fades and teams disintegrate for lack of incentives. About a dozen universities and clubs participate in the National Championships for seniors (over 18 years of age). Because the National Junior Championships have not been held for the past two years, it is not known how many clubs would participate at that level. The three military academies provide team handball on an intramural basis.

The physical education program at Adelphi University on Long Island has included team handball for the past dozen years or so and graduates of that program have introduced the sport to local communities. Alumni of the Army programs also have started clubs and school programs in various parts of the country, as have members of the national team. However, all of these programs operate in isolation from one another; there is no nationwide coordination of development.

The sport is not taught in most physical education classes, nor is it taught to physical education teachers. (Adelphi is the only school in the country that requires a course in team handball instruction for all physical education majors.) Dwindling budgets at most institutions preclude the introduction of new sports. AAPHER (the American Association for Physical Education and Recreation) is distributing a team handball rulebook to its member schools, which is one step toward greater exposure of the sport and eventually to greater participation.

Although clinics have been held on occasion by the national teams during their training season, USTHF is not equipped financially or materially to follow up these clinics with films, brochures or classes. USTHF's main concern is developing elite athletes and USOC funds are used to field and train national teams.

In 1972 most of the men's Olympic team were from the Army. Enlisted players were reassigned to the New York area for concentrated training before going to Munich. That team placed fourteenth at the Games.

Since then, the players have left the service, scattered around the country and acquired families and jobs. Between 1972 and 1975 the men's team met twice, for a week each time, for international competition. As the Montreal Games approached, practice sessions became more frequent but player attendance was inconsistent, due to the time and cost of travel as well as family and job commitments.

The men's team received far less in team preparation funds and had to bear a heavier financial burden than did the women, who had all expenses paid in the U.S. and abroad.

Both teams travelled literally thousands of miles. Members of the men's team live as far away from the East Coast as Oregon and Washington state. Training camps, which lasted two or three days, once a month, were often connected with trips abroad which lasted up to two weeks. All training camps for the men were held on the East Coast. (The women's team practiced at various locations, usually the schools or universities where members of the team were students or coaches.) The 1976 men's team finished tenth out of 12 in Montreal.

Outside periodic training sessions for the national team, elite athletes generally train alone. An athlete can keep in shape by running, cycling, swimming, and lifting weights, but developing the skills of the game and refining them to the level needed for international competition cannot happen in local communities. Local teams are scarce and existing teams do not compete at the elite level. This lack of competition at home means the national team must seek training and competition abroad. It also means Olympic athletes retire precipitously from further competition.

Coach Development

The only known program that teaches the skills of coaching team handball is the Adelphi course mentioned above. No coach in the U.S. is capable of teaching the sport at the technical level needed to train elite athletes. Even the two Olympic coaches cannot claim the knowledge of the sport needed to beat the Eastern bloc countries. Most coaches have learned to play by watching. Books describing the fine points of scoring and ball handling are unavailable.

USTHF has no national certification program for coaches, no clinics and no programs to bring in knowledgeable coaches from abroad or to send potential U.S. coaches to clinics in Europe.

Officials Development

Only one person in the U.S. is a certified official, a Swedish citizen currently working in this country. Officiating at any competition, including the national championships, is done by coaches and players who have a general knowledge of the rules. USTHF has no officials training program and no certification procedure even if someone desired such certification. (The Army trained a few officials in the early '70s but they are no longer active.)

Media Coverage

During the Montreal Games newspaper coverage of team handball was statistical only. ABC-TV coverage of the sport amounted to about 30 seconds total, and that was of non-U.S. teams. In short, media exposure was nil.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

National rules of play match those used internationally. At the local level rules may be modified according to the level of expertise of the coach or the availability of a court and proper equipment.

U.S. eligibility rules are quite flexible because of the sport's undeveloped state. For international competition USTHF follows IOC Rule 26 on eligibility.

IHF defines an amateur as one who does not receive any financial reward or material benefit from participation in the sport. However, during team preparation and competition, a player may receive assistance from the national federation for food and lodging, clothing and equipment, transportation, pocket money and medical costs. In addition, a player may be a coach or physical education teacher at the elementary level and also may be a paid employee of the national federation or of a club. However, a player may not be a professional in any other sport nor have been a professional coach or trainer in any sport. Participation in advertising is permitted provided all payments are made to the national federation and not to the athlete.

Domestic

USTHF holds an annual national championship for senior men and women. Through 1974 there was also a national championship for juniors, under 18 years of age. No regional or local competitions are sponsored or sanctioned by USTHF. Local competitions are organized and run by local organizations.

For many team handball clubs the national championship (if they can afford to travel to it), is the only opportunity for non-intrasquad or intramural competition. USTHF does not provide information as to the whereabouts of existing teams, so clubs often don't know whether there is competition in their area. There is virtually no elite level competition in the country, which makes international travel vital.

International Competition

The focus of the U.S. team handball program has been preparation for the Olympics, which means participating in qualifying competitions and in the annual IHF World Championships. The previous World Champion men's team becomes the top seeded team for the Olympic round-robin. The Olympic host country automatically qualifies for the Games, and seven teams are chosen in a series of qualifying games in Europe. In addition, one team is chosen in qualifying matches to represent Africa, another to represent the Americas, and still another to represent the Far East (including the Middle East), to make a total of 12.

The women's selection procedure is slightly different. The first four teams from the World Championships automatically qualify for the Olympics, as does the host country. One more team, from a qualifying round-robin between the American, Far East and African team, makes the total of six.

Team Selection

Selection for the 1976 U.S. Men's Olympic team began in September 1975, with a training camp to select a squad for the next eight months of training. (Final team selection took place in May 1976.) Players were invited from the nationals, junior nationals and through personal contacts. The training squad was narrowed to approximately 25 and then systematically trimmed down to the final 12 over a period of several months.

The U.S. Women's Olympic team started from scratch with two training camps in August and November 1974 to pick a squad for the first World Championships in 1975 and, it was hoped, for the Olympics in 1976. Because women's team handball was a new Olympic sport, the training squads had to be selected from non-handball players. Skills from sports such as basketball, volleyball, softball and baseball, plus a combination of height, speed and agility were attributes stressed in letters of inquiry sent by USTHF to high school and college teachers and coaches. Potential players recommended by the schools then were invited to the initial training camps.

In 1976, the final selection for the men's team was challenged by a veteran 1972 Olympian who had been training with the squad. Although he had been chosen by the coach to be on the 1976 Olympic team, he was not approved by the USOC Team Handball Games Committee. Feeling that this was due to personality conflicts rather than to any lack of playing ability on his part, he requested a hearing from the USOC. Lt. General Henry W. Buse, Jr., Chairman of the USOC Games Preparation Committee (which is responsible for such hearings), found that the selection should be re-evaluated by the Team Handball Games Committee. The Games Committee voted again and the player was reinstated on the grounds that the Games Committee had not been fully informed about the player's training schedule, his ability as a player, or his attitude toward the game, the Olympics and the coach.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATION

If the U.S. is to make any showing in international team handball competition, a major overhaul is needed domestically. Critical areas are:

- an inbred national federation which is irresponsive to change;
- lack of public exposure to the sport;

- lack of programs for grass roots development;
- lack of trained officials and coaches;
- limited access to adequate facilities;
- poor communication between athletes and the governing body; and
- no elite level competition in U.S.

USTHF's new constitution could inject more flexibility into the organization if the number of athlete participants were increased and new executive officers elected.

At present the USOC is the source of most team handball funds and those monies are spent primarily to field the two national teams. Additional revenues must be found in order to implement programs for coaches and officials training and development, clinics and training camps for athletes at all levels, and a paid administrative staff. A certain annual income would be guaranteed if USTHF membership were required of all teams participating, with fees falling due at the beginning of each year.

Programs for training coaches and officials would be difficult to begin without some base of expertise. Bringing European coaches to the U.S. would be one approach; sending a small corps of Americans to European clinics would be another. The goal in either case would be to have enough trained personnel to develop training and competition programs throughout the U.S.

TRACK AND FIELD

Since the advent of the modern Olympics in 1896, the U.S. consistently has dominated track and field. Yet that dominance is fading as the country's programs in this multi-faceted sport suffer jurisdictional disputes, inadequate athlete support at the world class level, and coaching and training techniques that lag behind those in other countries.

United States athletes generally can be counted on to win Gold Medals in many track and field events. But in one men's and two women's field events in 1976 the U.S. did not have even one athlete who could meet the Olympic qualifying standard. Further, the U.S. is the only country that left four present or former world record holders at home for the 1976 Olympics. Injury or poor performance at the one-shot Olympic Trials meant they did not make the team. This surely contributed to the U.S. repeating the poor showing it made in 1972 in Munich: six Gold Medals, fewest ever in Olympic track competition. These recent events are symptomatic of several underlying paradoxes:

- Despite the quadrennial Olympic glamour, track and field limps along with no public and limited private financial support. Feuding factions and groups within the sport keep U.S. efforts splintered and disorganized.
- Track and field attracts the greatest media coverage of any sport in the Summer Games; yet there are few careers in this country for track athletes compared with opportunities for athletes in the non-Olympic sports of baseball and football.
- Equality for women has been a stated goal and visible movement in this country for decades. Yet women's track programs are only just emerging from the Middle Ages in terms of breadth, quality, and financial support.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

Thanks to its long history and association with Olympic efforts, U.S. track and field has one of the most fully developed programs of any sport on the Olympic calendar. Almost every junior and senior high school and every college in the country has at least a skeletal track and field program. Nevertheless, some events are badly neglected and women's programs are grossly underdeveloped in comparison with men's.

More than any other sport in the U.S., track and field is known for internal power struggles and jurisdictional disputes that erupt with alarming regularity. These feuds, more than all other factors, have held back the development of the sport on a national scale and repeatedly have penalized athletes.

Track and field major problems include:

- The struggle for control between the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) and the U.S. Track and Field Federation (USTFF) and its patron, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA);
- Absence of a single-purpose coordinating body for track and field programs;
- Lack of adequate funding. This results in little financial support for grass-roots programs, meager or non-existent travel assistance to help athletes attend major meets, and few advanced training clinics for top athletes. It also means an insufficient staff at the govern-

ing body level to administer the needs and programs of the sport;

- Lack of access to facilities for many athletes. Club athletes, post-collegiate athletes and women, particularly, are barred from using some of the superior college facilities;
- Inadequate development programs and limited competition for women (grudging compliance with Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 is beginning to permit some progress toward equalizing opportunities for women athletes in school sports as more and more women become interested in competitive sports);
- Lack of pertinent research and development in sports medicine and failure to collect and disseminate information that is available.
- Neglect of some disciplines like the hammer throw, decathlon, women's pentathlon, race walking, and steeplechase;
- Inadequate training and certification of coaches and officials; and,

Events in International Competition

The number of Olympic men's track and field events has varied through the years, reaching a peak in 1972, when there were 24 events. There were only 12 events for men in the first Olympics in 1896. Another 23 — such as the tug of war, cross country, and standing broad jump — were subsequently dropped. In 1976, there were 23 men's events:

TRACK EVENTS

- 100m
- 200m
- 400m
- 800m
- 1,500m
- 5,000m
- 10,000m
- Marathon[1]
- 110m hurdles
- 400m hurdles
- 3,000m steeplechase
- 4 x 100m relay
- 4 x 400m relay
- 20km walk[1]

FIELD EVENTS

- Long jump
- Triple jump
- High jump
- Pole vault
- Shot put
- Discus throw
- Javelin throw
- Hammer throw
- Decathlon (10 combined track and field events)

The number of track and field events for women in the Olympics has increased steadily since women were first officially admitted into Olympic competition in 1928. Originally, there were only five events — three sprint races, the running high jump, and the discus. Other events have been added in subsequent Games. Efforts are being made to have equal distance races for both sexes included in future Olympics. In 1976 women competed in 14 events:

TRACK EVENTS

- 100m
- 200m
- 400m
- 800m
- 1,500m
- 100m hurdles
- 4 x 100m relay
- 4 x 400m relay

FIELD EVENTS

- High jump
- Long jump
- Shot put
- Discus throw
- Javelin throw
- Pentathlon (5 combined track and field events)

Each country is entitled to at least one entry per individual event. If more than one is entered, all (to maximum of 3) must meet the Olympic qualifying standard. One team entry is allowed for each relay.

The events for men and women in the quadrennial Pan American Games are the same as in the Olympics.

History of World Rank

The U.S. men's medal count in the Olympic Games since 1896 comes to 216 Gold Medals (including 26 medals for events no longer held), 159 Silver Medals (17 for discontinued events), and 130 Bronze Medals (17 for discontinued events). United States women since 1928 have won 18 Gold, 11 Silver and 8 Bronze Medals.

The total number of track and field medals won through 1976 (including discontinued events) is 542. This is approximately 37 percent of the medals won by the U.S. in all sports in the Summer Games. However, as the following graphs indicate, the USSR and East Germany are strong contenders, particularly in women's events.

Since no world championship is held in track and field, the most recent world competition in the sport was the 1976 Olympic Games. The U.S. won 6 Gold, 8 Silver and 8 Bronze Medals, duplicating the count at the 1972 Munich Olympics, the poorest U.S. team showing since the modern Games began, based on the number of participants and events held.

United States men currently hold several world records — in the pole vault, high jump, discus, shot put, 400m hurdles, decathlon, 4 x 100m relay, 4 x 400m relay, long jump, and 400m — and share the record for 100 and 200 meters. World records for women, on the other hand, seem to be the exclusive domain of East European women, principally the East Germans and Russians; U. S. women hold none.

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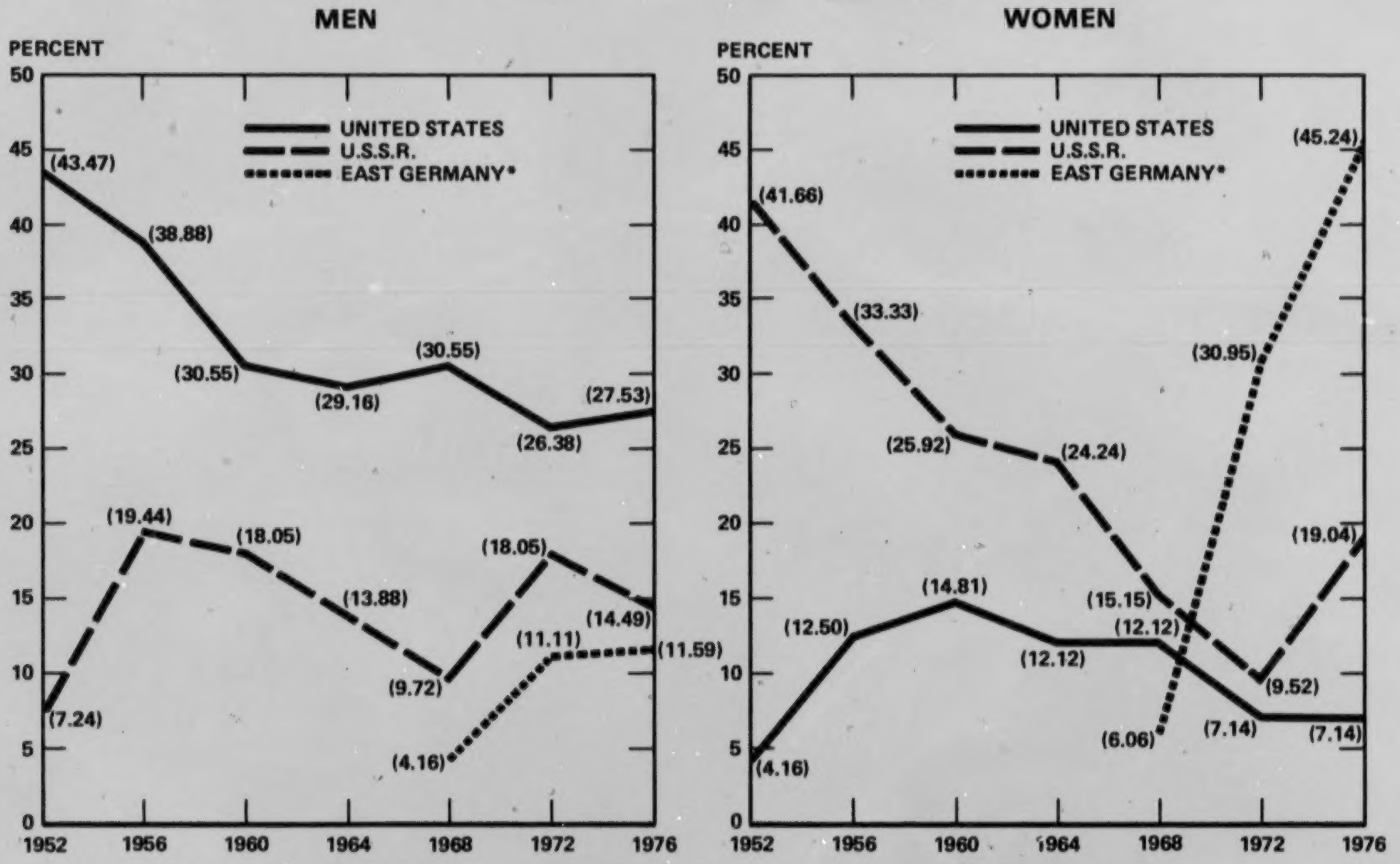
[1] The marathon and 20km walk begin and end in the Olympic stadium, although most of the walk and the 26-mile, 285 yard marathon are run on the road.

TRACK AND FIELD OLYMPIC MEDAL COUNT

NUMBER OF OLYMPIC MEDALS WON BY THE TOP THREE TRACK AND FIELD NATIONS – – THE UNITED STATES, THE U.S.S.R., AND EAST GERMANY – – EXPRESSED AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL MEDALS AWARDED FOR MEN AND WOMEN (RELAY EVENTS COUNTING AS ONE MEDAL)



*NOTE: EAST GERMANY HAS PARTICIPATED AS A SEPARATE COUNTRY SINCE 1968.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The AAU, founded in 1888, serves as the governing body for eight Olympic sports including track and field and also has programs in 10 other sports. The AAU was one of the founding members of the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF) in 1912, and has been recognized as the franchise holder for the sport ever since. The AAU laid claim to official control over women's competition in all its sports in 1922, including track and field.

At the top of the pyramid, AAU policy and decisions are determined by its officers and a board of directors elected from the 18 AAU national sport committees. At the base, the AAU is composed of individual sport clubs around the country which feed into 58 state and district associations. The associations in turn send representatives to the national AAU. A number of allied organizations have voting or non-voting memberships in the AAU, including several that run track and field programs: the Intercollegiate Association of Amateur Athletes of America (ICAAAA), the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletes (NAIA), YMCA, YWCA, Catholic Youth Organization (CYO), National Jewish Welfare Board (NJWB), and Road Runners Club of America. For a more detailed discussion of the structure of AAU sport committees, refer to the chapter of the report entitled The Amateur Athletic Union of the USA.

Six separate supervising committees under the AAU umbrella presently administer track and field: the men's track and field committee, the women's track and field committee, long distance running committee, the race walking committee, the Masters' track and field committee, and the women's long distance running committee. Delegates are chosen to serve on the various track and field committees by election from local clubs to state associations to the national committees.

In addition to state delegates, each committee has several at-large delegates and four to ten athletes' representatives. Each committee consists of a chairman, up to 15 regional vice chairmen, and a secretary appointed by the chairman. There is further division into several track and field subcommittees. Some clubs and state associations help defray the expenses of representatives attending national meetings, but athletes and at-large delegates usually have to pay their own way. These committees usually meet three times a year, at the indoor and outdoor championships, and at the annual AAU convention of all its sports groups.

An AAU restructuring effort is underway, dictated in part by new U.S. Olympic Committee (USOC) policies, to bring all track and field disciplines and organizations (both within and outside the AAU) under a single "Board of Athletics." Traditional rivalries between the AAU and USTFF have hindered this attempt so far. Another structural change taking place is that the separate USOC track and field committees for men and women, which handled the Olympic Trials and team preparations up through 1976, will be disbanded after April, 1977 and their responsibilities given to the AAU.

At the October, 1976 annual meeting of the AAU, the proposal for the Board of Athletics was formally adopted and appropriate changes made in the AAU code. The new board — which will have coordinating jurisdiction over the track and field committees — will be composed of 28 members, including the chairman and rules committee chairman from each committee, the immediate past Olympic committee chairmen, seven athletes, and at-large and public sector representatives. Although it is the intent of the Board of Athletics to open up membership on the Board and the new track and field Olympic committee to representation from *all* groups that sponsor track and field programs, no definite plan for implementation exists as of this writing. Moreover, it is not known what the reaction to such overtures will be from the NCAA and USTFF, which have for a number of reasons rebuffed or ignored all such AAU-initiated advances in the past.

The USOC Track and Field Committees have come under heavy criticism for many years from coaches and athletes alike for the way in which coaches and managers are chosen for the Olympic and Pan American teams. Almost without exception, the people appointed to these prestigious positions are members of the USOC committees and have, in effect, appointed themselves. In spite of the appearance of a wide-open selection process, nine of the ten coaches and managers for the 1976 men's Olympic team and three of the four for the women's team were members of the committees which voted on the final selection. That the 1976 staff was competent and effective illustrates that the committees contain worthy candidates. But the breadth of track and field coaching excellence in the U.S. is such that many fine candidates remain outside serious committee consideration.

All AAU sports are served by a headquarters located in Indianapolis, Indiana. Track and field usually has had a full-time administrator (although there has been no one in this slot since the spring of 1976) who, with prior approval of the Track and Field Committee is assigned to issue travel permits to certify athletes (as amateur) for international competition, to assist the track committees, and to prepare for national and international tours and meets. Additional AAU staff — such as the executive director, publicity personnel, travel office, and secretarial pool — assist in track and field matters as the need arises.

Although the AAU Track and Field Committees are given a certain amount of autonomy in conducting the sport, the national organization assumes control of some areas. Many budgetary matters, especially the negotiation for TV contracts, as well as international meet schedules and the appearance of foreign athletes in the U.S., are controlled by the AAU executive director, Ollan Cassell, who by virtue of his AAU position, is a non-voting member of all AAU committees, including the track and field committee. Recently, he was selected to be a new U.S. delegate to IAAF. Most major decisions affecting the sport in the U.S. must be approved by Mr. Cassell, although his principal duties are to the full AAU organization and the 18 sports it administers.

AAU records show that approximately 50,000 track and field athletes, nearly 24,000 long-distance runners, and some 400 race walkers registered with the association in 1975. However, this is only a fraction of the actual number of registered athletes, since the AAU computer lists reflect only those who competed regionally or nationally, or who have taken out accident/medical insurance with the AAU. No national files are kept on many of the junior level athletes who register with AAU state associations.

Major AAU programs include:

- Hosting annual National Indoor and Outdoor Championships,
- Planning and sponsoring international tours for U.S. teams and bringing foreign teams and athletes to the U.S. for invitational meets;
- Encouraging grass-roots training programs and competition through local clubs and state affiliates;
- Encouraging athlete development through its Junior Olympic program and through seminars and clinics for top athletes, coaches, and officials;
- Making available low-cost insurance to athletes;
- Producing code books and rulebooks, newsletters, other publications, and training guides; and
- Providing a public relations and media information service for the sport.

The goals of the AAU are generally to enhance its present programs and:

- To increase its membership;
- To improve fund-raising and development programs to provide more competitions and support for athletes;
- To hold more clinics for athletes, coaches and officials; and
- To maintain its authority and franchise in the sport, bringing other track and field organizations under its umbrella.

Other Major Track and Field Organizations

A number of other organizations conduct track and field programs, principally:

- U.S. Track and Field Federation (USTFF);
- Individual colleges and junior colleges;
- College associations, such as the NCAA, NAIA, AIAW, NJCAA;
- National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA);
- Track and field clubs;
- Military organizations;
- Religious, community, and youth groups;
- Road Runners Club of America;
- National Track and Field Association;
- U.S. Track Coaches Association;
- U.S. Women's Track Coaches Association; and
- Individual meet promoters.

Almost all of these groups host or sanction various track meets throughout the season. The coaches' groups and USTFF hold clinics and other sessions to improve coaching skills.

High schools and colleges provide the majority of track facilities in this country. Many allow local clubs to use these facilities for training.

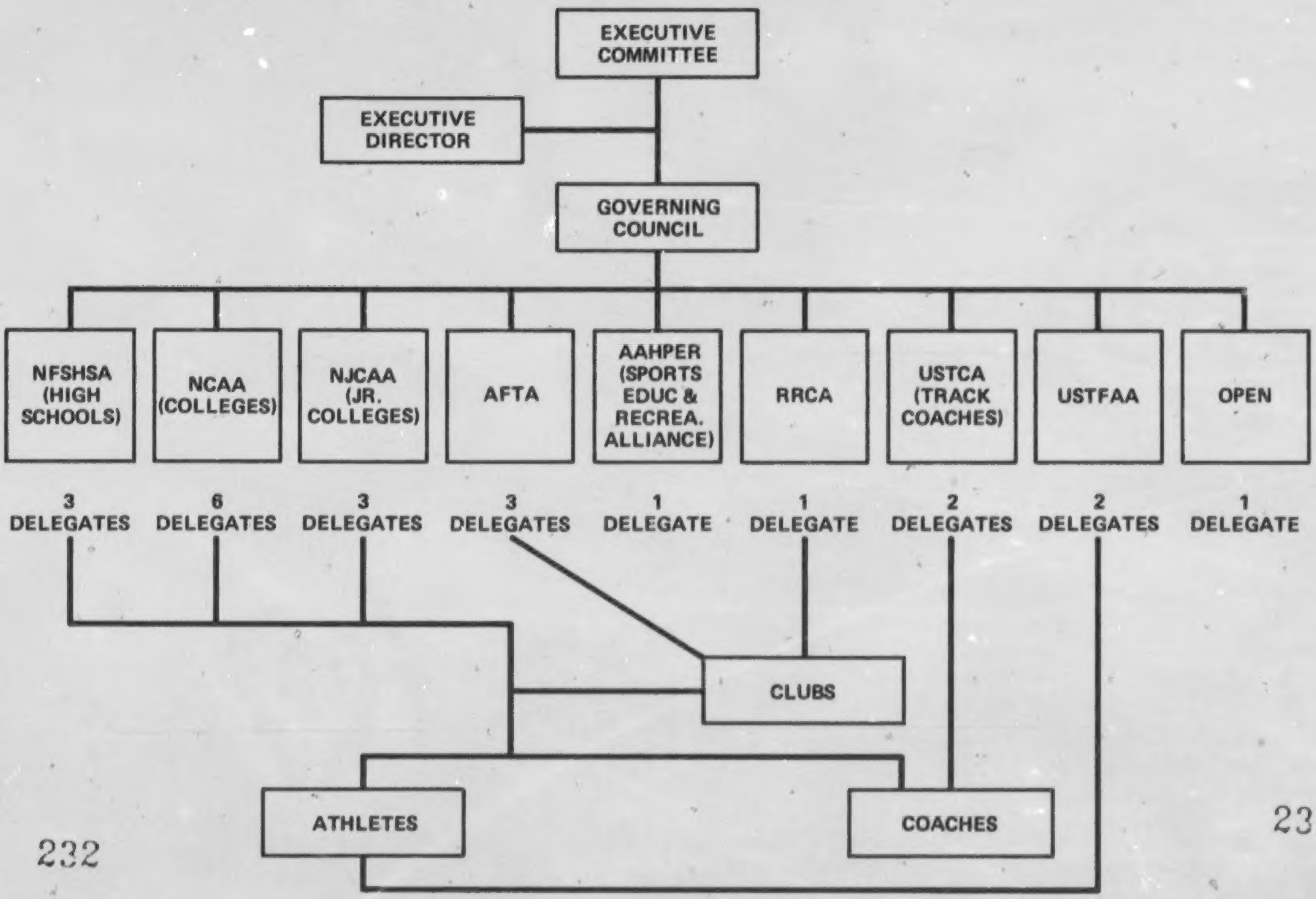
The major coalition outside the AAU is USTFF, which, unlike the AAU, is an organization of organizations. Among active USTFF members are the NCAA, NFSHSA, NJCAA, and the National Track and Field Association — representing some 34,000 colleges, high schools, and clubs throughout the country. In addition, USTFF has allied and associate members including national coaches, trainers, and recreational groups. These constituent groups represent over one million athletes, 20,000 coaches, and 10,000 officials.

Through its members, USTFF provides programs for more than one million competing athletes in schools and clubs, while another four million athletes participate in intramural or physical education activities. Another one million youngsters use high school and college facilities for age group training programs in the summer months. USTFF claims membership of more than 95 percent of all the track coaches in the U.S. and, through its members, control of more than 95 percent of all track facilities.

USTFF policy is determined by a 22-member Governing Council, including three women and three athletes, appointed by the member groups. An Executive Committee, composed of four offi-

TRACK AND FIELD

U.S. TRACK AND FIELD FEDERATION


EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
GOVERNING COUNCIL
NFSHSA (HIGH SCHOOLS)
NCAA (COLLEGES)
NJCAA (JR. COLLEGES)
AFTA
AAHPER (SPORTS EDUC & RECREA. ALLIANCE)
RRCA
USTCA (TRACK COACHES)
USTFAA
OPEN
3 DELEGATES
6 DELEGATES
3 DELEGATES
3 DELEGATES
1 DELEGATE
1 DELEGATE
2 DELEGATES
2 DELEGATES
1 DELEGATE
CLUBS
ATHLETES
COACHES

cers and one representative from each organizational member, is elected from the Council to serve two-year terms.

USTFF is divided into 50 state associations, which sponsor track and field programs. USTFF directly sponsors and stages more than 30 indoor and outdoor track meets, in addition to 57 other cross country, decathlon, or marathon competitions. Area competition culminates in the USTFF national indoor and outdoor championships. All meets are open to men and women; USTFF has pioneered in long distance events for women. In addition, USTFF conducts clinics and coaching schools, publishes magazines and training material on track and field, and certifies and registers officials. Further, USTFF sanctions meets and maintains a Hall of Fame.

Since its founding in 1962, USTFF has gone to the front lines in the long-standing struggle between the AAU and NCAA. It has attempted to wrest control of the sport away from the AAU, in terms of both the international franchise awarded by the IAAF and membership on the U.S. Olympic Committee. In both efforts USTFF has been unsuccessful, in large part owing to the long-standing relationships with these groups which the AAU enjoys as the incumbent governing body.

USTFF and the AAU were subject to several arbitration attempts in the 1960s to try to settle these disputes. General Douglas MacArthur, Robert Kennedy, and labor lawyer Theodore W. Kheel all tried at different times to resolve the impasse, but no lasting solution was found because all efforts relied on the voluntary compliance of the warring factions.

Contention between the AAU and USTFF occurs in five areas: sanctioning powers, travel permits, meet scheduling, registration (eligibility) requirements, and facility usage.

By virtue of its international franchise and governing body status, the AAU is required to approve and sanction all international meets, determine which teams and athletes may travel abroad (and which foreign athletes and teams are invited to this country), as well as decide all questions of eligibility and guarantee that all athletes taking part in sanctioned meets are amateur. The sanctioning power is particularly important, since participation in unsanctioned meets is grounds for declaring athletes professional or otherwise ineligible.

The AAU maintains that USTFF continually has attempted to undermine its powers and usurp its functions by refusing to apply for sanctions for its meets, by continuing to initiate contacts and seek invitations for exchanges between U.S. and foreign teams without going through the AAU, by not enforcing AAU registration requirements for meet participants, by scheduling meets that conflict with major AAU events, and by encouraging the refusal (at times) of the use of high school and college facilities to the AAU.

USTFF, on the other hand, considers the AAU an obstructive body that does little to develop the sport and acts as a roadblock to athletes and teams who wish to compete. USTFF contends that registration requirements are thinly veiled fund-raising efforts at the athletes' expense, asking why athletes should be forced to register for non-AAU sponsored meets. Some individual athletes and USTFF-affiliated high school and college teams have difficulty in obtaining travel permits from the AAU. In some cases where groups or individuals have decided to go ahead without these documents, the AAU has wired ahead to host countries urging that they do everything possible to have the meets cancelled, warning that the amateur status of the host country's athletes may be jeopardized if they compete with unauthorized U.S. athletes.[2] This lack of coordination has caused some international dual meets with U.S. teams to be cancelled or curtailed.

USTFF criticizes another restriction: the AAU-imposed moratorium on U.S. athletes between 1973 and 1975, forbidding them to compete abroad during the period ten days preceding AAU national meets, or five days before major international competition involving U.S. teams. This was done, USTFF contends, to force top athletes to take part in AAU-sponsored meets, but in reality deprived all athletes of their right to decide when and where they would compete. The AAU dropped the moratorium because of a flood of criticism and because it was almost impossible to enforce.

Finally, USTFF argues, the AAU has no track facilities of its own, few meets of its own, few athletes who are not already recruited and trained through the school system, and almost no coaches except those involved with educational institutions. "The AAU has just a piece of paper — its international franchise."

Both sides in this confrontation have taken actions to assert their authority, usually to the detriment of the athletes. Although the casebook is long, three examples will suffice:

- In 1973, the NCAA refused to allow college athletes to compete in the AAU's dual meet with the Soviet Union in Richmond, Virginia. The stated reason for this refusal was that the AAU had not applied for or received NCAA certification of the meet. When two college athletes broke the ban, they were ruled ineligible by their schools but later reinstated after missing one meet each. (See section on NCAA).

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[2] (IAFF rules state, "No competitor shall be allowed to compete outside his own country unless his amateur status is guaranteed in writing by the recognized governing Athletic Association of his country, and he has permission from such body to compete.")

- In 1970, the AAU would not allow the USTFF national championship teams, the University of Kansas and Bowling Green State University, to compete in a tour sponsored by the U.S. State Department in the Carribean and Central America. The AAU cabled the track and field associations in those countries stating that this renegade group was a non-IAAF-recognized organization, that it had "misused U.S. embassy offices," that it was composed of "professional coaches and trainers who were trying to usurp the authority of the AAU," and that unless these meets were stopped, the international eligibility of the host country's athletes would be jeopardized. The tour, while not cancelled, was downgraded to a series of exhibitions and clinics.
- Under IAAF regulations "all negotiations for the participation of an athlete in another country shall be carried on through the Members concerned . . .", e.g., the AAU. However, a number of top U.S. track and field athletes have complained that the AAU has failed to forward to them many invitations received at AAU headquarters. In some cases, the AAU has responded that only those invitations which would conflict with national championships were withheld.

Although these differences between the AAU and USTFF continue to simmer, a truce of sorts is in effect and some discussion has taken place in the last year or two. The improved situation is best characterized by the 1975 China trip in which both college and non-college athletes participated. Scheduling conflicts with meets in the U.S. were avoided so that all qualified athletes could take part.

Talks between the officers of the AAU and USTFF were held in Chicago in mid-November 1975. Agreements were reached on questions of freedom of international movement for college athletes and teams, cross-membership (each organization agreed to join the other) and reserving one of the U.S.'s three IAAF delegate seats to a college-oriented person. Unfortunately, the question of registration could not be settled, and thus the other accords were not ratified.

Relationship to the International Federation

As a founding member of the IAFF, the AAU has maintained a position of importance within the international federation. In recent years, AAU delegates have been elected to serve on the 15-member IAAF Council and as chairman of the important Technical Committee. The AAU has pursued a policy of assisting its four delegates to these international meetings when funds were available. Generally, however, representatives have been expected to pay for their own expenses. There has been no limit to the number of terms a U.S. representative can serve and no mandatory retirement age, which has left these important posts in the same hands for many years, discouraging turnover.

Although the IAFF has looked upon the AAU as a faithful and conscientious member, a number of international officials have indicated that it would be in the best interest of the development of the sport if track and field were administered by an independent, single sport organization in the U.S. These officials have indicated, "Where the affiliated governing body for Track and Field is responsible also for a number of other sports, there would seem to be a risk that the interests of track and field could at times be submerged due to the demands of rival sports. We have to compete with other sports and games in attracting young athletes, and we like our affiliated member to be responsible wholly for track and field and devoting all its efforts to the development of our sport. Even where, as in the case of the AAU, there is a separate track and field section, it cannot be expected to have the same power and influence as if it were a completely autonomous body, and we cannot communicate directly with it, as we deal always with our Member." The AAU is the only multi-sport governing body from any country that is a member of the IAAF.

RESOURCES

Personnel

Track and field relies on thousands of volunteers who serve as coaches administrators and officials, to keep the programs and competitions running.

Almost all paid track coaches in the U.S. are affiliated with the high schools and colleges. They number between 20,000 and 25,000, many of whom do not specialize in track and field alone but have other teaching and coaching assignments. Several thousand more coaches donate their time to work with club teams.

Few of the non-institutional track organizations have any permanent staff. The AAU has a single full-time administrator for the sport[3]. The AAU men's and women's track and field committee members are all volunteers. Some, by virtue of being coaches or otherwise engaged in the sport, put a full-time effort into track and field.

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[3] The AAU Track and Field administrator position has been vacant since May of 1976.

USTFF has an office, executive director and secretary located in Tucson, Arizona. Almost all high school and collegiate sports associations have permanent offices and staffs, but none has anyone assigned to track and field programs on a full-time basis. Individual high schools and colleges, of course, have athletic departments which sponsor school-year training programs for enrolled student athletes.

Of the more than 10,000 track officials in the U.S., almost all are affiliated with either the AAU and/or USTFF and/or the high school or college organizations. In spite of the feuds between track and field groups at the top level of administration, a number of officials are members of both the AAU and USTFF and are willing to officiate regardless of the official sponsor of a given meet.

Facilities/Equipment

The number of track facilities in the U.S. can only be estimated. Some 1,200 senior and junior colleges have outdoor tracks, while fewer than 300 have indoor track facilities. In addition, close to 18,500 of the more than 22,000 junior and senior high schools in this country have limited to excellent outdoor track facilities. To round out the picture, a handful of military installations, a few private clubs, and several municipalities also have track facilities.

While there is no scarcity of outdoor tracks (approximately 22,000), the limited number of indoor facilities sometimes presents a problem in the major metropolitan areas in the Northeast and in the colder northern climates where snow often prevents winter training.

Track facilities generally are available to male high school, college and military athletes, whereas club athletes, post-collegians, and women often have difficulty gaining access to training sites. Some top national athletes have had to climb fences to train in facilities otherwise barred to them. Women athletes often have unequal access to facilities even at schools with programs for both men and women.

The cost of track facilities can be very high. Eight-lane, tartan surfaced, 400m outdoor tracks cost in the vicinity of $225,000. Land costs, seating or grandstands, plus associated facilities can run from $1 million to $3-$4 million for a multi-sport complex. Indoor tracks are shorter (usually 200m or less), narrower (six lanes or less), and made of wood or synthetic compounds laid on concrete. Cost of the track run $60,000 or higher, while building costs for a field house or arena are in the range of $1.5 to $2.5 million.

Track equipment can be expensive, too. Top-of-the-line fiberglass vaulting poles can run $175, shots $50, discs $55, javelins $140, and hammers $115. These costs are such that many athletes do not own their own implements, but use those provided by schools and clubs. Additional expenses include training and competitive shoes ($30 or more a pair) and warmup suits ($40 and up).

The major cost to athletes beyond basic equipment is travel to meets. This can be nearly $400 from one coast to the other. During the indoor (winter) and outdoor (spring) track seasons, many athletes will travel to a dozen or more meets. College athletes generally have their fares paid by their athletic departments, but few track clubs have enough funds to underwrite expenses for non-collegiate athletes who must pay their own way.

The AAU pays travel expenses and a small per diem, when funds are available, to defending champions at the National Indoor and Outdoor Championships. A few other "worthy contenders" may receive partial AAU assistance to the two meets if the money is available. Most coaches and officials must pay their own expenses not met by their schools. Track athletes, coaches and managers going on foreign tours generally have expenses paid by the AAU or foreign meet promoters. Athletes wishing to compete in most meets must take out an annual registration with the AAU for $2.50 and pay a nominal meet fee, usually $2.00.

Funding

The AAU does not break down all of its income and expenses on a sport-by-sport basis because, officials maintain, much of the revenue such as the Junior Olympic sponsorship, TV income, and contributions are multi-sport in nature. As a result, it is extremely difficult to estimate AAU costs specifically connected with track and field. Many events sponsored by the AAU are carried on the books of its 58 associations or by the meet underwriters. Only a percentage of actual registration fees, sanction fees, and meet profits are sent to AAU House; the remainder stays with the various associations. All that appears on the AAU's sports accounts is the surplus or deficits derived from its activities.

Thus, it is almost impossible to know what part of the AAU's stated $1 million budget for fiscal year 1976 (ending June 30, 1976) went to track and field. In fact, the national activities of the AAU in all sports represent a sum at least double that figure. AAU officials estimate, for example, that their track and field program at the national and international level alone costs close to $1 million a year. A few examples of approximate tour and meet costs in 1975 and 1976 include:

1975 China Trip (87 people)	$150,000
1975 Russian Outdoor Track Meet (82 people)	92,000
1975 Russian:American Junior Meet (Nebraska)	65,000
1976 National AAU Indoor Championships (Madison Square Garden)	65,000
1976 Russian Indoor Track Meet (75 people)	77,000
1976 National AAU Outdoor Championships	65,000
1976 Russian Junior Track Meet	81,000

Listed below are the income and expenses from the track and field sports committee funds for fiscal 1976:

AAU Track and Field Committee Funds, FY 1976

	Carry over Balance	Income	Expenses
Men's track and field	-$118,264	$32,385	$70,972
Women's track and field	-$ 8,719	9,353	1,058
Long distance running	+$ 8,684	16,015	12,061
Race walking	-$ 1,784	149	246
TOTALS		$57,902	$84,337

It should be noted that women's international team expenses are usually handled through the men's committee budget, thus the negligible figure in that column. AAU officials maintain that these figures are "only the tip of the iceberg" in terms of the actual costs of running these programs. Most of the income listed is derived from TV contracts and meet profits. Most expenses indicated are travel, uniforms and other expenditures associated with foreign tours.

Additional support for the track and field program came from the USOC. Assistance for 1976 came to $82,500 for development, $56,600 for team preparation, and $140,800 for trials and extended team training. Total grants for the 1973-76 Olympic quadrennial totalled $216,500 (men) and $93,616 (women) for development; $62,600 (men) and $51,400 (women) for team preparation; $139,400 (men) and $80,900 (women) for trials and extended team training, and $4,661 (men) and $1,629 (women) for sports committee expenses.

Moreover, all expenses incurred by the U.S. Olympic track and field team — including travel, parade uniforms, room and board, tickets, etc. — are assumed by the USOC and are not a part of the AAU's financial statement.

USTFF's operating budget, which usually runs close to $100,000 a year, has always been heavily subsidized by the NCAA, with grants running $40,000 a year. USTFF's financial summary for calendar year 1975 follows.

USTFF FINANCIAL SUMMARY, 1975

TOTAL ASSETS	$20,584.89
Income	
NCAA grants	41,780.92
Championships	31,209.95
Publications	6,377.77
Sanction fees	6,186.43
Membership dues	2,450.00
Trophy and medal sales	1,836.84
Miscellaneous	2,218.63
Total Income	$92,060.54
Expenses	
Administration	$47,965.29
Competitions	20,563.95
Development	16,639.14
Sports Facilities	-0-
Total Expenses	$85,168.38

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

Close to a million high school and college athletes take part in track and field programs and competitions. Another four million men and women are involved in track and field activities as part of their physical education classes or intramural programs. On the recreational side, it is estimated that as many as 10 million Americans of all ages engage in jogging for physical fitness and recreation.

Although there is some overlap in the figures, the number of school/college track and field athletes breaks down as follows:

	Men	Women
NFSHSA (1974)		
Track and Field	667,974	299,215
Cross Country	214,840	12,301
NCAA (1971-72)		
Track and Field	19,190	1,389
Cross Country	9,194	145
NAIA (1975-76)		
Track and Field	8,876	—
Cross Country	3,348	—

NJCAA (1975-76)		
Track and Field	4,188	1,130
Cross Country	2,046	196
AIAW (1975-76)		
Track and Field	—	6,150 (estimated)[4]

Many of these school athletes as well as non-school athletes register with the AAU. A partial count of 1975 AAU registration figures showed:

	Men	Women
Track and Field	28,668	18,744
Long Distance Running	6,353	721
Race Walking	316	69
Total	35,337	19,534

However, these figures in no way represent the total number of AAU athletes in the sport. The national organization does not know what the actual total is, since registrations are handled by the 58 associations. The above figures represent only those athletes who competed in regional and national competitions and/or took out health insurance with the AAU. They do not include those athletes who competed only in local meets, especially age group and Junior Olympic youngsters, who, in most cases, have their registration fees waived. The AAU estimates its registration figures represent about 20 percent of the actual total in each category.

In addition to the school programs, sport clubs cater to sprinters, field athletes, long distance runners, and a few race walkers. These clubs provide essential training and development programs for athletes during off-school hours or vacations, and after their formal schooling has ended.

In spite of the widespread popularity of track and field, there are still a number of barriers to participation in the sport:

- Lack of programs and competition for women at all levels, especially in the weight events, long distance running and race walking;
- Lack of adequate coaching skills in certain disciplines and in certain areas of the country;
- Inadequate access to existing facilities and a relative shortage of indoor track facilities in regions that require them for wintertime training;
- Competitive seasons that force track and field to vie with three other popular sports — football, basketball, and baseball — for the top athletes;
- High cost of travel to meets;
- Lack of subsidized training situations apart from schools and a general scarcity of college track scholarships for talented athletes;
- Inadequate support from the business and industrial community in giving working athletes compensated time off (broken time payments) for training and competition without prejudice to their jobs;
- Limited career possibilities in the sport as school or college coaches; and
- The fact that development of top performance levels takes longer than in many other sports.

Athlete Development

Most development of U.S. track and field athletes takes place in the athletic programs of the educational system, augmented by the sports clubs.

Track and field training can begin for children as young as six to ten, usually accelerates during the high school and college years, and can continue nearly as long after that as competitors desire. Some athletes compete internationally into their 30s and 40s although it usually becomes increasingly difficult to do the necessary training after graduating from college. Nonetheless, there is a growing demand for Masters programs, to provide competition for people in the 35 and over age group.

The college track scholarship is an important factor in determining which athletes are able to make the most of their talents and which are not. Without admission to college, the potential world-caliber athlete does not have access to prime, subsidized coaching skills and facilities. Unfortunately, as budget cuts become necessary in the last few years, colleges have dropped track and field programs or curtailed the number of scholarships.

The AAU sponsors a Junior Olympic (J.O.) program in 17 sports every year for young athletes between the ages of 6 and 18. Begun in 1948, the program has been underwritten by the Chevrolet Division of General Motors Corporation. (The President's Commission understands that Chevrolet will withdraw its sponsorship after 1976.) Chevrolet's contribution in 1976 was $182,000. The track and field J.O. program involves approximately 150,000 youngsters at the local level competing in meets that qualify them for state and regional championships. The top two winners in each event from each area qualify for an annual national Junior Olympic meet. Championships for eight sports, including track and field, are combined to add to the "Olympic" aura. Some 2,000 Junior

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[4] AIAW programs for college women include NCAA, NAIA, and NJCAA schools.

Olympians, one-quarter of whom were track athletes, took part in the 1976 multi-sport national championships.

A number of organizations, including schools, the AAU, CYO, YMCA and others, run age group programs in track and field and cross country. Usually, athletes participate in five age divisions — nine and under, 10-11, 12-13, 14-15, and 16-17 years. These programs reach hundreds of thousands of young athletes and are so popular that many metropolitan areas will have one or more age group meets a week during the track season. The number of girls who compete in these programs is fast overtaking the number of boys (and has overtaken them in many sections of the country), largely because there are fewer alternative sports activities for girls at these ages.

Coach Development

Coaches associations and other groups hold training sessions periodically to upgrade the teaching and technical knowledge of their members, many of whom are themselves former track athletes. However, coaching skills are not standardized and the system for certifying a coach's skill level and teaching ability generally is inefficient.

Training of Officials

The AAU, USTFF, and other organizations help to develop experienced and competent track officials. However, there is no general standard for what skills are required to become an official, how often any certification must be received, and how it can be revoked.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

Most of the rules prescribed by the IAAF are adhered to in the U.S. except that most meets still do not use the metric system for measuring distances (although a growing number of major national events have gone metric). Generally, there is a recognition in the sport that this must change within the next few years and some top officials are pushing for the conversion.

Domestic Competition

The premier track events in the U.S. are the Olympic Trials every four years, the AAU Indoor and Outdoor National Championships, the NCAA Indoor and Outdoor Championships; multi-school championships such as those sponsored by NAIA, NJCAA, AIAW and ICAAAA; and certain college or invitational meets such as the Penn Relays, the Drake Relays, the Florida Relays, and so on.

Although there is a steady stream of meets in the U.S. (estimated at 240,000 per year), many of them have restrictions which limit the field of entries. Many meets fail to hold a full Olympic schedule of events for a variety of reasons: the time and cost of staging them, the lack of spectator interest, or the danger of holding an event like the javelin or hammer throw in a small stadium. Separate competitions are often held for race walking, marathon, and events like the decathlon and women's pentathlon. One of the major excluded groups in the sport is women, who either are barred from or are allowed only one or two token events.

In 1976, for the first time, the men's and women's Olympic Trials were combined, and the AAU men's and women's outdoor meets were held as a single championship).

Finally, many competitions are "closed" meets, limited to a certain class of athletes, such as college students. Post-college athletes often encounter difficulty entering major meets because they no longer have college affiliations.

International

Except for the Olympic Games, track and field does not have a world championship as do most other sports. An Invitational World Cup is planned for the first time in 1977, to be held in Dusseldorf, West Germany. If it is successful, the IAAF hopes to begin hosting a world championship every other year, possibly starting in 1981.

Other major international meets include the Pan American Games every four years, the World University Games every two to three years, and various invitational dual and triangular meets. There are restricted continental meets, such as the Asian Games, Pan African Games and European Championships in which American athletes are not eligible to participate.

U.S. track teams sent abroad are usually sponsored by the AAU, individual high schools or colleges, track clubs such as the Pacific Coast Club, or occasionally the U.S. State Department. In the 1975 season, the AAU sponsored 26 U.S. teams (660 athletes total) in overseas competition and 10 foreign teams (261 athletes) in meets and tours of the U.S. Note: A growing number of foreign athletes come to the U.S. on athletic scholarships and compete regularly in U.S. collegiate and national meets.)

Foreign meet promoters sometimes will pay expenses for individual U.S. athletes to participate in their events. These foreign meets often cause concern within the IAAF because alleged "under the table payments" are frequently made to top world athletes, above their actual expense, as an inducement to attend the competitions. Such payments, though difficult to prove, would be grounds for an athlete losing his or her amateur standing and being barred from future competitions. Foreign track shoe and equipment manufacturers, as a practice, give away merchandise to top athletes to encourage them to use their products. Cash payments to athletes (illegal under IAAF amateur eligibility rules) are known to have taken place from time to time. Enforcing amateur rules is difficult under such circumstances; athlete eligibility, in most cases, is left up to the national governing body to determine. Since national associations are not eager to disqualify their best athletes, few competitors have had their amateur standing revoked.

Team Selection

Most teams slated for international competitions are selected from predesignated qualifying meets. The top two or three place finishers usually are given the first invitation, then on down the line until a full team has been reached.

Athletes have been vocal in their criticism of the AAU's "last-minute-itis" in picking its teams. Common practices include inviting athletes a day or two before a tour is set to leave, or selecting a team at the conclusion of a meet and leaving directly the next day without giving athletes a chance to prepare adequately. The latter procedure is followed primarily because it cuts down travel costs as the AAU does not have to pay to reassemble the team. There are also strong arguments that it is better to select athletes who are reaching their seasonal peak at the time of the meet, rather than picking a team too far in advance only to have performances begin to fall off.

Although there is no agreement on the matter, an increasing number of officials, coaches and athletes have indicated a preference for having a continuing national team for track and field. Athletes who met certain performance standards or who made the top placements in designated meets throughout the year, would automatically qualify for such a team. Certain continuing performance requirements would have to be met to stay on the team. The national team could be as small as five or six athletes in each event, to 15 to 20, depending upon training and other costs to develop and promote the team. The national team could serve as the nucleus for all major foreign tours and competitions, eliminating the uncertainty of current selection procedures. Skeptics of such a concept are concerned that a national team will not allow ample, regular opportunities for all athletes to make the team or give athletes whose performances peak rapidly the immediate recognition or selection they deserve. There would be the prospect of coordination difficulties with college or high school programs.

Under current practice, to make the U.S. Olympic Team, athletes must first meet the Olympic Games qualifying standard to attend the Olympic Trials. If not enough athletes meet the standard, a number of athletes, up to 12, may be invited to round out the competition. The top three finishers in each event go to the Olympics if all have met the international standard. Otherwise only one or two, if both have met the standard, will be sent. Relay teams are chosen from among the best sprinters in the Olympic Trials. Usually, the first serious competition relay runners face as a team is at the Olympics, since there are no relays in the Trials. Some critics contend that the one-chance Olympic Trials do not adequately allow for illness, injury, or poor performance on a given day. Some suggest that two trials be held or that consideration be given to an athlete's performance over the entire year. Although the current selection method has the disadvantage of leaving some of the best athletes at home, nearly all track and field participants agree it is fair and democratic.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In the Summer Olympic Games the U.S. has traditionally done well in track and field, swimming and basketball. While U.S. supremacy continues in the latter two sports, track and field victories have been fewer and fewer over the last decades. This is due more to the rise of sports programs in Eastern Europe and Africa than to their decline in the U.S. Part-time athletes in the U.S. are hard pressed to be competitive with well-trained, state-supported track and field stars in other countries. Bureaucratic infighting between the AAU and USTFF or the NCAA takes its heaviest toll in track and field. As mentioned earlier, arbitration efforts in the 1960s brought no lasting solutions.

Women's programs languish for lack of top-flight coaching, sufficient funding, scholarships, and access to facilities. Post-college athletes are expected to fend for themselves in terms of support, training and competition. Some events are given second-class treatment: race walking is still considered carnival side show material, instead of being brought into the full program, and hammer throwing, an event where only the coaches are scarcer than the athletes, is considered "too dangerous" and consequently is held outside the stadium in U.S. meets, when it is included at all. Furthermore, medical research in this country is generally not brought to bear on athletic problems.

The only way for the U.S. to hold its own in this sport, to prevent further erosion in its standing in world competition, is to take bold, positive action:

— Establish an organization or association responsible solely for track and field, perhaps a new group or council with representatives of all major programs to coordinate, arbitrate and generally to hold existing groups accountable for their actions.

- Treat all disciplines within the sport equally. Until race walkers, long distance runners, hammer throwers, decathletes, etc., start to receive benefits and support through the main-stream programs, the disaffected will remain so.
- Encourage and support grass-roots programs for women that provide sufficient training and development in all events, from elementary to advanced skill levels.
- Bolster training and competition opportunities for non-school athletes.
- Set up a national team open to all athletes who meet and maintain a certain standard of performance, with members being added or deleted at regular intervals or at predesignated qualifying meets throughout the year. Members of the national team might receive specialized, subsidized training; regular medical examinations (taking advantage of all developments in the area of sports science); and educational and career assistance, when needed. An athlete's long-term, individual development schedule could be worked out with coaches, trainers and a coordinator for the national team. Team members should be provided assistance to attend necessary meets.
- Use national team athletes as the pool from which teams for international tours and meets would be drawn. This would facilitate advance planning and notification of athletes so that proper preparations could be made.
- Intensify fund raising efforts to support an expanded program.
- Designate, coordinate and support to the extent necessary regional training centers, available to national team and junior development athletes. This can be done in conjunction with college or other groups with existing facilities.
- Support and encourage broken-time payments to enable nationally-ranked athletes to train and compete as necessary without jeopardizing their employment.
- Expand training courses for coaches and officials and standardize certification requirements.
- Hire national staff to supervise, coordinate and sustain a program commensurate with the size of this sport.
- Select coaches and managers for international teams, especially for the Olympic Games, through an impartial nominating process, perhaps whereby selection committee members are ineligible for consideration.

VOLLEYBALL

Volleyball was one of the first sports to use arbitration procedures set up under the changes initiated by the U.S. Olympic Committee in December 1974. Although volleyball has not been fraught with bitter struggles as have several other sports, it has had considerable growing pains trying to reach the level of international play of many other nations.

In February 1975, the U.S. Volleyball Association (USVBA) entered into an agreement with the City of Pasadena, Texas, outside Houston, to be the home and sponsor of the national women's volleyball team. Pasadena agreed to pay the coach's salary, provide housing and one meal a day, and find jobs for the players. After holding tryouts and training for several months, the USVBA team finished in a four-way tie for ninth in the national championships won by a younger California team sponsored by the rival American National Volleyball Association, (ANVA). In the summer and fall, the USVBA team failed to win a berth at the zonal Olympic qualification journey and fared abysmally in the Pan American games, finishing sixth out of seven teams, causing two top players to leave in discouragement.

At this point, ANVA offered to merge its team with the USVBA team in order to have the best representatives at the final Olympic qualification tournament in West Germany in January 1976. USVBA officials refused, saying that they would be breaking promises to athletes who had been practicing with the team for several months and that such a last minute change was unlikely to improve overall team performance. ANVA apparently believed that six ANVA women had been selected at a tryout in California. USVBA said that since the women had decided not to join the USVBA team until later in order to stick to their planned training regimen and international schedule, their places on the 24-player training squad had been filled. ANVA officials brought the case to the USOC, but the arbitration judge ruled that he didn't have jurisdiction because the complaint had not been raised by any of the players.

The USVBA team went to the Olympic qualifying tourney in Europe, leaving six all-American players behind with ANVA teams, and finished a non-qualifying fourth. However, the USVBA team vindicated itself four months later by beating the ANVA team twice to take the 1976 national championship title. Although the Pasadena training program was a step forward in terms of preparing a team for world-caliber performance, it was fraught with petty politics, underfunding and broken agreements.

A national men's team also formed in 1975 had USVBA itself as its primary financial sponsor, but did not have a permanent training site. Southern California served as home base the first year, then Dayton, Ohio, took over as the city-sponsor in September 1976, with facilities at Wright State University.

Unfortunately, no top U.S. volleyball coaches could afford to give up a permanent job for the team, particularly since USVBA was offering only expenses and no salary. Brigham Young University then came to the rescue, allowing their volleyball coach to take liberal leaves of absence to train the national team.

Although there was not as much dissention as on the women's team, there still was a fairly rapid player turnover. The national men's team performed even worse internationally, than did the women's team; it did not even come close to winning an Olympic berth.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

Although the U.S. invented volleyball, American developmental programs and play have not kept abreast of international improvements and refinements in the sport. Some time ago, volleyball ceased to be an American sport, in terms of both dominance and general interest.

United States volleyball players generally lack international experience. The U.S. seldom has taken part in major international tournaments and tours and only twice has qualified teams for the Olympics. All-star teams usually have been assembled at tryouts following national tournaments, trained for a short period, and then sent off to virtually certain, humiliating defeat. Only in the Pan American Games has the U.S. ever been considered a major power in the sport, and that modest mastery was gone after 1967.

Some of the major problems in the sport are:

- Inability to attract and maintain a national training team of players much beyond the college years. (Foreign teams tend to be much more seasoned than U.S. teams. They are older, have played together longer, and have had more experience in international matches);
- A volunteer governing body (with three-full-time staff members) that is a closed circle of national delegates and officers who appoint each other and who for the most part, do not represent constituent groups. The governing structure, therefore, is not necessarily representative of USVBA membership as a whole;
- A fund-raising effort inadequate to the needs of the sport;
- Lack of top qualified coaches;
- No national program. Several organizations conduct volleyball programs without overall coordination or continuity in the coaching and development of players;
- National teams that suffer from neglect, lack of interest, and minimal financial support from USVBA, as well as rapid player turnover;
- A women's national team program that is not given equal treatment with the men's, especially in terms of dollars spent;
- Declining interest among high school and college men (although school programs for women are experiencing tremendous growth);
- Lack of a strong club system and leagues to promote and develop pre- and post-collegiate play;
- Until recently, an almost non-existent junior program;
- Lack of national competition and of opportunities to compete internationally;
- Lack of strong, regular U.S. representation at meetings of the Federation Internationale de Volleyball (FIVB); and
- A rather disinterested U.S. public which considers volleyball a recreational rather than a competitive sport.

Events in International Competition

Men's and women's volleyball have been on the Olympic schedule since 1964. Teams qualify for Olympic competition through zonal qualification tournaments and consolation tournaments. Only 18 national teams—10 men's and 8 women's teams—earn the right to be in the Olympics. There are a maximum of 12 members on each volleyball team, with six players on the court at a time.

History of World Ranking

The U.S. has never won a medal in Olympic competition and has qualified teams only twice (in 1964 and 1968). Highest U.S. placements in the Volleyball World Championships, initiated in 1949, included:

- 2nd, 1967 Women's World Championships (almost all of the Communist countries boycotted this meet);
- 6th, 1960 Women's World Championships; and
- 6th, 1956 and 1960 Men's World Championships.

The U.S. did not even send teams to the world tourneys in 1949, 1952, and 1962.

Until recently, U.S. teams have dominated play in the Pan American Games. The men's team has won three Gold and two Silver Medals and the women's team one Gold and three Silver Medals since 1955.

Present World Standing

Both the men's and women's teams failed to qualify for the 1972 and 1976 Olympic Games. In the 1974 World Championships, the U.S. Men's team placed fourteenth, the U.S. Women's team placed twelfth. In the 1975 Pan American Games, the men's team placed fourth and the women's team placed sixth, their poorest showing in six encounters.

The international standing of the U.S. men's team has eroded over the past 20 years, as countries like the USSR, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Japan and Cuba have come to dominate the sport. The U.S. women's team on the other hand, has been on the rise since 1974. Although Japanese, Russian, and Korean teams dominate the event, the U.S. women's team narrowly missed qualifying for the 1976 Olympics. The junior women's team has done well in matches against junior teams from the Far East, indicating it could do well in the first Junior World Championships in 1977. These athletes could form the nucleus of a team that would be in medal contention for the 1980 Olympics.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

Volleyball was first played in Holyoke, Massachusetts in 1895. The U.S. Volleyball Association (USVBA) was founded in 1928 and has been the official international franchise holder since the formation of the Federation Internationale de Volleyball (FIVB) in 1947.

USVBA is governed by six officers and a 21-member Board of Directors. The Board meets twice a year and is elected by the approximately 123 governing members. Forty-six represent various affiliated sports organizations, 19 are regional volleyball commissioners appointed by the president and board, 48 are at-large members appointed by the Board of Directors, and three are elected by the players. Also included are the six officers and all past presidents. Officers serve staggered two-year terms. Until May 1976, there was no limit to the number of consecutive terms any officer could hold. This has now been changed to permit a maximum of three consecutive terms in any one office. It seems to be standard practice for several officers to hold a number of concurrent elective and appointed positions within the organization.

As a practical matter, the governing members appointed by the president with the consent of the board (some 67) are the most active supporters and the most likely to attend the annual meeting, held in conjunction with the USVBA Open Championships. The net result is that appointed members are the deciding factor in electing the board, while the board reappoints the largest block of governing members. This essentially closed circle has resulted in little turnover in board members and, some argue, has led to stagnation in policies.[1]

For administrative purposes, the U.S. is divided into 19 regions (two are overseas military regions), each headed by a commissioner recommended by the president and appointed by the board. Chairmen of the 12 USVBA committees are appointed by the president with board approval. Most development efforts and competitions are conducted by the regional organizations and volunteers.

USVBA is composed of individual players, clubs, and some 18 affiliated sports organizations. In 1976 10,684 volleyball players and enthusiasts registered with USVBA (5,981 men and 4,703 women). The total has been growing steadily over the past few years.

The U.S. Volleyball Education Foundation was established in 1972, after USVBA's second application for tax-exempt status was denied in 1970. The foundation is billed as the principal funding entity for national developmental and educational volleyball programs, although monies raised by it (less than $20,000 annually) are less than 15 percent of the total USVBA budget. Principal sources of USVBA funds are donations, TV revenues, and money from the H.E. Wilson Division of USVBA which receives royalties on sales of volleyballs and sells other volleyball equipment. Trustees and voting members of the foundation come from among USVBA officers, board and governing members.

Major USVBA programs include:

— Hosting a national competition each year, with qualifying tournaments and seeding competitions conducted by the regional organizations;

— Selecting national team coaches and sponsoring national teams for men and women, to represent the U.S. in international meets;

— Testing volleyball equipment;

— Promoting the sport with the media and public;

— Bringing top foreign teams to this country for exhibition play;

— Holding summer development camps for younger players and coaches clinics to improve general skills in the sport;

— Sponsoring regular clinics through the regional structure for the training and certification of meet officials; and

— Publishing a monthly national newspaper.

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[1] It should be noted that several changes came about at the 1976 annual meeting of the USVBA Board of Directors due to questions raised by members of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports. A limit to the terms of officers was instituted for the first time. Each regional commissioner, who is appointed by the president and board, was to appoint one at-large delegate from his region, rather than having all at-large delegates selected by the board as before. Also, a committee of the board was formed to review possible alternatives for appointing or electing at-large delegates through the regional commissioners and organization, as a means of opening up the USVBA to "new blood and more representative governing members.

USVBA goals supportive of these programs are:

- To increase interest and participation at all levels of the sport;
- To develop player and team proficiency that will lead to more successful international competition; and
- To encourage the recreational aspect of the sport as a life-time activity.

Other Major Organizations

The list of sports organizations that conduct volleyball programs is fairly lengthy:

- National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA)
- National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA)
- National Junior College Athletic Associaton (NJCAA)
- Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW)
- National Federation of State High School Association (NFSHSA)
- Amateur Athletic Union (AAU)
- American National Volleyball Association (ANVA)
- Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA)
- National Jewish Welfare Board
- Catholic Youth Organization
- Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints
- Four Branches of the Military
- National Recreation and Park Association
- U.S. Volleyball Coaches Association
- International Volleyball Association

Most of these groups have organized play, development programs and competition in volleyball. Many of the college, religious and military organizations have tournaments that lead to national championships for their members. Since 1974, with USVBA consent, the AAU has staged a Junior Olympic volleyball program for 12- to 18-year-olds.

The International Volleyball Association (IVA), the only professional volleyball league in the world, has been in existence since 1974. It supports six coed teams in Southern California, Arizona, and Texas. Attendance at most games has been relatively small, ranging from several hundred to 4,000. It is too soon to tell whether the league will survive and become a permanent factor in the development of the sport.

ANVA began as an Orange County (California) volleyball club. Its training program has attracted some of the top volleyball talent in the country. It is the only non-school organization other than USVBA national teams to have a full-time volleyball coach and year-round training for its athletes. ANVA raised nearly $300,000 in fiscal year 1975-76 to support its three teams (two women's and one men's). The organization maintains ticket offices for its exhibition games and for general promotion in some 10 cities. ANVA has a network of young, part-time student salesmen that sell tickets door-to-door in their efforts to boost interest and attendance in the exhibition matches.

Between one and four appointed delegates from most of the above listed organizations serve as governing members of the USVBA. In reality, however, not all these delegates are active in USVBA or attend its meetings, in effect giving even greater weight and control to USVBA board-appointed members.

Relationship to the International Federation

USVBA has had minimal influence on FIBV. Its attendance at European meetings has been limited to those who could personally afford to go. Until the 1970s there was little continuity of delegates and no policy to ensure U.S. representation at all meetings. USVBA now pays trip expenses for the U.S. representative sitting on the FIVB board of administrators. The U.S. is also entitled to have a representative on each of the four FIVB committees. While USBVA seldom sends a full delegation, partial expenses are met for each official.

In 1975, FIVB, worried about the impact of the international recruiting practices of the newly-formed professional IVA, brought pressure to bear on USVBA. This unprecedented act resulted in USVBA asking for the resignation of one of its board members who was a major promoter of the professional league. In addition, several other USVBA members had to sever their relationship with the budding league. Further, officials who refereed professional games were prohibited from officiating at amateur events.

RESOURCES

Personnel

USVBA is headquartered in San Francisco and has three full-time employees: an executive director, a national training director (recently hired) and a secretary. All other activity is carried out by a force of volunteer workers and supporters.

In addition there are two national coaches, one each for the men's and women's teams who receive only expenses, not salaries, from USVBA. The coaches' salaries are paid by the city-sponsors for national teams--Dayton, Ohio, and Pasadena, Texas.

The coach of the ANVA teams and the high school and college coaches are paid by their institutions. Most other volleyball coaches in the U.S. (several thousand) are part-time volunteers. Few have the skills or experience to prepare a team for international competition.

Several thousand certified officals and scorers are available for tournaments in this country; they are trained, rated, and carded by USVBA, the high school federation or the college organizations. Less than two dozen meet officials, however, have had any international experience.

Facilities/Equipment

Of the more than 108,000 public and private educational institutions in the country, a large percentage have one or more gymnasiums. Additionally, there are thousands of municipal recreation centers, public sports arenas, YMCAs, private clubs, military bases, churches, and other institutions which have gymnasiums. However, only a small number of these are used for volleyball.

Recreational volleyball is also played as an outdoor sport on beaches, open courts and backyards, but most surfaces, except for wood floors, are not appropriate for making the flying dives and saves required in tournament play.

Despite the large number of gymnasiums in this country, suitability and availability are problems. A fairly low percentage of gyms have adequate ceiling height for serious training or adequate floor space for simultaneous warm up and team play. Many do not have proper court markings or volleyball nets and equipment. Virtually no facilities in the country are devoted exclusively to volleyball and volleyball teams often have difficulty finding court space, due to competing gym uses. Rising energy costs, liability factors and escalating insurance rates make it even more difficult to rent suitable gym space. Even teams in colleges where volleyball is not a varsity sport have difficulty obtaining court practice time.

Gymnasiums can run from $100,000 to $200,000 to several million dollars, depending upon the size, extra support facilities and seating capacity. Important considerations for both tournaments and training is a smooth playing surface and adequate ceiling height (23 feet or higher for regulation play).

Volleyball equipment is widely available in this country, although all volleyballs for formal competition are imported from Korean and Japanese manufacturers. Volleyballs cost $20 to $35, nets from $50 to $100, and standards $75 to $1,000. Gym shorts, shirts, and tennis shoes usually are less than $50.

Costs to Participants

Costs for athletes are minimal—roughly $200 to $300 a year for equipment, fees and coaching. Very few tournaments are held at the national level, so transportation for most players is associated with local or regional play. USVBA team membership fees are $20; individual fees, $10; and junior (under 20 years) fees, $1.00.

Although costs for junior-level players are relatively low, top national players (who are generally post-college athletes) must make large sacrifices for training and team preparation. City-sponsors or USVBA can meet only part of the room and board costs for the two national training teams. Although efforts have been made to find meaningful jobs for players who have had to relocate to train with the national team, the jobs were often unsuitable, resulting in some player dissatisfaction.

Players, coaches and officials, for the most part, pay their own way to tournaments, competitions and meetings.

Funding

USVBA expenditures in the 1975 fiscal year came to $148,729.73. Current assets, equipment, and accounts receivable on June 30, 1975, came to $181,846.89. A more detailed look at the USVBA's 1975 financial statement shows:

Balance at beginning of year	$ 130,319.76
Income:	
Dues	47,239.00
Guidebooks and subscriptions	34,032.37
Tournaments	11,619.71
Advertising, ad guide	8,537.00
U.S. Olympic Committee grants	33,993.65
Interest and Royalties	6,081.36
Miscellaneous	645.09
TOTAL:	$ 142,148.18
Expenses:	
Administrative	$ 71,212.66
Printing, distribution, and sales	15,336.59
Sports Facilities	-0-
Development	66,307.31
Competition	11,209.86
TOTAL:	$ 164,066.42
Balance at end of year	$ 123,533.79

In addition, the H.E. Wilson division of USVBA issued the following financial summary for fiscal year 1975:

Income	
Volleyball sales	$269,263.10
Total:	$269,263.10

Expenses:	
Cost of Volleyballs	$202,561.25
Administrative	36,755.31
Total:	$239,316.56

The USOC gave the men's and women's volleyball teams $25,000 in development grants in 1975, $16,600 for team preparation and $24,200 for extended team training. The total amount awarded by the USOC to volleyball during the quadrennial 1973-76 came to $157,000, although the size of the grants dropped considerably in 1976 after the volleyball teams failed to qualify for Olympic competition.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

USVBA had 10,684 registered players and over 800 teams in 1976. This was up slightly from 1975, when registrations showed nearly 10,000 players. Many times this number, however, play volleyball on an occasional, recreational basis. The heaviest concentration of interest in the sport is in the State of California although there are pockets of interest in other areas such as Texas, Ohio and New York.

High school and college participation figures in the table below show the following:

	Institutions	*Men*	*Institutions*	*Women*
NFSHSA (1974-1975)	2,583	43,050	8,610	198,313
NCAA (1971-72)				
Varsity	25	480	280	4,124
Intramural	480	158,769	374	61,144
Phys Ed	314	51,327	280	35,524
Recreational Club	55	2,233	70	2,186
NAIA (1975-76)	10	160	—	—
NJCAA (1975-76)				
Varsity	24	300	160	3,494
Intramurals	N/A*	15,850	N/A	11,258
Phys Ed Classes	N/A	26,494	N/A	21,810
AIAW (1975-76)	—	—	422	8,440 (est)
Total		298,663		346,293

*N/A not available

Although there is some overlap in these figures, they do indicate a considerable depth of interest in the sport—at least at the recreational level. They also show that women's volleyball at the varsity high school and college level has many times the number of participants as the men's programs, making volleyball one of the three most popular women's team sports.

Athlete Development

At the grass-roots level, volleyball clubs, youth organizations and schools conduct most of the basic skills and training programs. The Junior Olympic program sponsored by the AAU attracts several thousand young players annually. Local and regional meets leading to a national competition are held for boys and girls in two age divisions (15-18 years, and 14 and under). Many other youth-oriented organizations, such as YMCAs, CYOs, and the Jewish community centers (JCCs), provide developmental programs in the sport. Also important are the few USVBA summer volleyball camps which provide young people with concentrated opportunities to learn the sport skills.

Colleges where volleyball is a varsity sport have provided good training conditions for athletes. The number of intercollegiate programs for men has been declining, but comparable programs for women have been increasing steadily. Nonetheless, only a handful of colleges offer volleyball scholarships for men or women.

Over the past two years, ANVA has provided a progressive year-round development program for two women's teams. ANVA also plans to promote other junior development teams for men and women.

The national team program, which USVBA started in 1975, has provided moderately suitable training conditions and good coaching for a small number of elite players (each team has 24 players in training). However, the men's and women's national teams have suffered several setbacks internationally which, along with inadequate job opportunities for team members, has resulted in a rapid turnover in team membership. The U.S. teams lack the seasoning, experience and maturity of top foreign teams. On the average, the best foreign teams train together four to eight years, reaching their peak performance between the ages of 23 and 27. American players are younger, on the whole, and do not stay with the national program for much more than two to three years because of limited opportunities both for international competition and for professional careers in the sport.

Coach Development

Most volleyball coaching in this country is learned by doing, first as a player, although USVBA does offer regular summer coaches clinics. The U.S. Volleyball Coaches Association (USVCA) is practically defunct; it has a limited membership and offers sparse training programs. Only a handful of U.S. coaches has taken the USVCA course that leads to certification as an international coach. The program has only been offered once in this country due to lack of demand and the expense of bringing in the qualified international staff to conduct it.

Development of Officials

USVBA conducts training clinics and refresher courses for officials and scorers. Regional organizations are required to hold one or more officiating clinics each season.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

The rules of play for volleyball in the U.S. have differed from international rules on several points, including court size, number of player substitutions and length of play in tournaments. At USVBA's spring 1976 meeting, all international rules were officially adopted in principle. Nonetheless, tournament officials are still allowed to use different rules of play with the prior approval of the regional commissioner. Rules governing high school and women's college volleyball are significantly different from international regulations, whereas men's collegiate play follows USVBA rules.

Domestic

Volleyball play in the U.S. is hampered by the fact the sport does not have a well-defined "season." In some parts of the country volleyball competition is in the spring, in others in the fall, and in still others it is squeezed in between the football and basketball seasons. National tournaments usually are held in the late spring. This inconsistency makes it difficult for younger athletes to go out for volleyball since it overlaps the traditional seasons of several more popular sports.

Except for USVBA National Championships, AAU Championships, and collegiate championships, most volleyball competition is regional or local in nature. USVBA regions may have as few as one to as many as 100 tournaments a season scheduled for men and women. Play at the regional level is broken down into divisions (A, B, C, D and so on) based on a team's ability. Teams move from one level to another depending upon their performance, but only the top team from each region automatically qualified for the national championships.

International

The major international events in volleyball include the Olympic Games, the World Championships (every four years midway between the Olympics), the World Cup (every four years, the year following the Olympics), Continental (zonal) Championships (every two years) which are used as qualifying meets for the Olympics and the World Championships, the Continential Junior Championships, and the Pan American Games. The first Junior World Championships will be held in Brazil in 1977, and thereafter every four years. In addition, there are a number of invitational multinational tournaments.

The U.S. has thrice hosted an exhibition tour of major world volleyball powers—the Russian and Polish men's teams in 1975 and the People's Republic of China men's and women's teams in 1976. A few other international teams have exhibition matches in this country. Few U.S. teams were sent abroad for world tournaments and tours until the 1970s. The U.S. has only hosted one international meet, the 1975 NORCECA championships (North and Central America and the Caribbean).

Team selection for international trips and tournaments usually is based on separate tryouts, although it is common practice to take the first place finisher in the USVBA Open Championships and augment that team with a few players from tryouts. The national coach or team coach usually makes the final selections. The national team and other top-ranking non-collegiate teams usually are open for player tryouts throughout the year.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

After inventing volleyball in the first place, the U.S. seems to have some difficulty treating the sport seriously; Americans for the most part look upon it as a brisk backyard or beach game of "Annie-over." Meanwhile, a surprisingly large number of foreign countries have adopted the sport, refined and improved on it, and learned to beat us at it.

The U.S. volleyball program benefits from several factors:

- A large participation base in the sport, particularly on the recreational side, at all ages and playing abilities;
- Strong and growing programs for women in schools and clubs that has helped to promote volleyball as one of the top competitive team sports for women;
- A widespread albeit underfinanced club system loosely organized by USVBA which offers training and play for enthusiasts around the country; and
- A long history and tradition identifying volleyball as an American sport.

To achieve measurable improvement in the status of the sport, a number of changes are needed:

(1) Reduce the number of USVBA governing members who are appointed by the board, making delegates and officers more representative of the basic club structure. Ensure that delegates to national conventions and board meetings are the most active, representative and involved persons possible;

(2) Limit the terms for all USVBA officers, set minimum attendance requirements for national representatives and remove inactive members;

(3) Initiate cohesive and comprehensive large scale fund-raising efforts to provide support for both the national team and grass-roots programs;

(4) Begin serious efforts to upgrade the quality of coaching in the sport at all levels by providing regular seminars, clinics and workshops, and attracting foreign talent when necessary;

(5) As sufficient funds become available, hire national team coaches, assistant coaches and trainers on a full-salary basis, making them responsible to the national governing body;

(6) Attempt to provide continuing support for the national teams, including full coaching and health care, room and board, scholarships, meaningful employment and broken-time payments;

(7) Establish regional training centers as appropriate to serve as focal points for the development of senior and junior teams, providing volunteer or part-time coaches as needed;

(8) Establish junior and senior league play within the regions to upgrade the level of competition in this country, using placements in league play as the qualifying standards for national tournaments;

(9) Set a definite competitive season for volleyball that conflicts as little as possible with other traditional American sports;

(10) Host international tourneys to develop media and public interest in the sport. Encourage development of an international league of North American teams to allow more frequent international play;

(11) Standardize, to the degree possible, all rules for U.S. volleyball, conforming to international rules whenever feasible;

(12) Recognize the common bond of interest between amateur programs and the professional league, which provides career incentives for volleyball players. Rebuild the bridges between USVBA and the professional league; and

(13) Strengthen and expand the club system, working to change restrictive school policies that prevent athletes from taking part in non-school athletics.

Until the club system is strengthened to provide high-caliber training and competition in the various regions, foreign coaches are imported to teach the more advanced techniques available elsewhere, and national junior and senior teams are regularly scheduled to meet in matches against the best foreign teams, the U.S. will have little hope of progress in the sport.

On the brighter side, there is prime potential for fielding world championship caliber women's teams in this country due to the large participation base of high school and college women, far outweighing any interest and development in men's programs. The fact that two teenage ANVA sponsored junior teams could consistently outscore the women's national team in tournament play in 1975 and 1976, as well as win many exhibition matches against first-string foreign junior teams, proves that proper motivation, combined with dedicated training and coaching, can produce startling results.

WATER POLO

After two quadrennials of planning and conscientious development efforts, the U. S. water polo team won a Bronze Medal at the 1972 Olympics. With this modest success it seemed that the U. S. had arrived as a major power on the international water polo scene. Thus, in quadrennial 1973-76, the final push was to begin, during which a well-seasoned U. S. squad that would be Gold Medal caliber would be developed. The Gold would be the reward for 12 years of hard work by a team of athletes, coaches and volunteer officials.

At the 1976 Olympic Games in Montreal, 12 teams played for the three medals. The U. S. did not win one of the medals; the U. S. did not even qualify for the Montreal Games. Instead, the U. S. lost to Mexico in the 1975 Pan American Games, a victory they needed to have to qualify for the Olympics of the following year.

The decline in U. S. water polo performance during the years 1973-76, cannot be attributed to any single factor. Three independent events occurred that made this period different from previous quadrennials:

- The coach of the national squad changed each year;
- The four-year planning cycle established at the beginning of the 1965 quadrennial was not continued; and
- National squad training, team selection and coach selection were more closely tied to collegiate than to club water polo.

Other problems beset water polo in this country. Introduced to the U. S. in the 1880s, the sport once had a broader participant base than it has now. Men's water polo is now primarily regional, and women's water polo is strong in only two states. Neither a men's nor a women's national development program presently exists. Limited access to facilities at reasonable times for training hinders development of club and national teams. It is not unusual for water polo players to face 6-8 a.m. and 9-11 p.m. training periods in one day. Further, rising talented but inexperienced athletes do not have significant opportunities for international travel, except as members of the senior national squad.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

The first water polo team was organized in 1888 by the Boston Athletic Association (BAA). The first game was played between BAA and the Sydenham Swimming Club of Providence, Rhode Island. The game spread west soon after an 1895 two-game series between the New York Athletic Club and the Chicago Athletic Association. During the early part of the Twentieth Century, Stanford University was the most powerful collegiate team. By 1900, water polo had become an Olympic sport.

Water polo was quite popular in the U. S. prior to the 1930s, particularly in the Midwest and the East. Following a decade of decline, it was revived after World War II by members of the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU).

The West Coast is now the center of U. S. water polo. All members of the 1976 national squad were from California. Indeed, the U. S. team has been dominated by or composed exclusively of Californians since 1960.

The AAU is the national governing body (NGB) for water polo in the U. S. Water polo is sponsored by most AAU associations. The NCAA, NCJCAA, NAIA and high schools also conduct water polo programs. The AAU women's water polo program now has an annual national women's championship, which had its grass roots beginning in 1962 and became an official AAU National Championship in 1964.

Events in International Competition

International water polo is primarily a men's sport for senior players. Major international events are the Olympic and Pan American Games, World Championships (held every four years), and the annual Tunsgran Cup held in Budapest, Hungary. Women's water polo is played at the international level, but is not an event in the Olympic and Pan American Games.

Water polo is a team sport. Championship games are played in a pool 30m x 20m and at least six and one-half feet deep. Seven players on a team, including the goalkeeper, are allowed in the pool at any one time. Four additional players are used as substitutes.

The object of the game is to score as many points as possible by throwing a ball past the defending goalkeeper into a soccer-style goal floating on the surface of the water. Each goal is ten feet wide and three feet high. Field players use one hand at a time in catching and passing the ball; only the goalkeeper may use two hands. Under international rules, a game is divided into four five-minute periods.

History of World Rank

The U. S. has fared better in the Pan American Games than in the Olympics or World Championships. American water polo teams have won two Pan Am Games Gold Medals (in 1967 and 1971) and two Silver Medals (in 1963 and 1975). In Olympic competition, on the other hand, American teams have not finished in the top three – except for the Munich Bronze Medal – since 1932. At the World Championships in 1973 and 1975, the U. S. placed fifth and eighth.

The U. S. was generally rated in the top four between 1969 and 1973. Since poor performances at the 1975 World Championships and the 1975 Pan American Games, however, the U. S. has fallen from the top ten.

Historically, the top four countries in water polo have been Hungary, Yugoslavia, the USSR, and Italy. In the 1976 Olympics the top six teams were Hungary, Italy, Holland, Romania, Yugoslavia, and Germany. The Russian team did not do well in the early going; it attempted to forfeit its last game in the preliminary rounds due to "sickness and injuries to five players," and wanted to drop out of the competition altogether. However, the Federation International de Natation Amateur (FINA) asked the IOC to force Soviet continuation in the tournament, a request which the Russians reluctantly agreed to honor and which resulted in an eighth place finish.

Only 12 nations may qualify for the Olympic Games, a reduction from the 16 permitted in 1972. The host country and one representative from each of the five FINA regions plus the six highest places at the World Championships qualify for the Olympics. If a qualified nation is unable to compete, the seventh place finisher in the World Championships is invited to round out the field.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

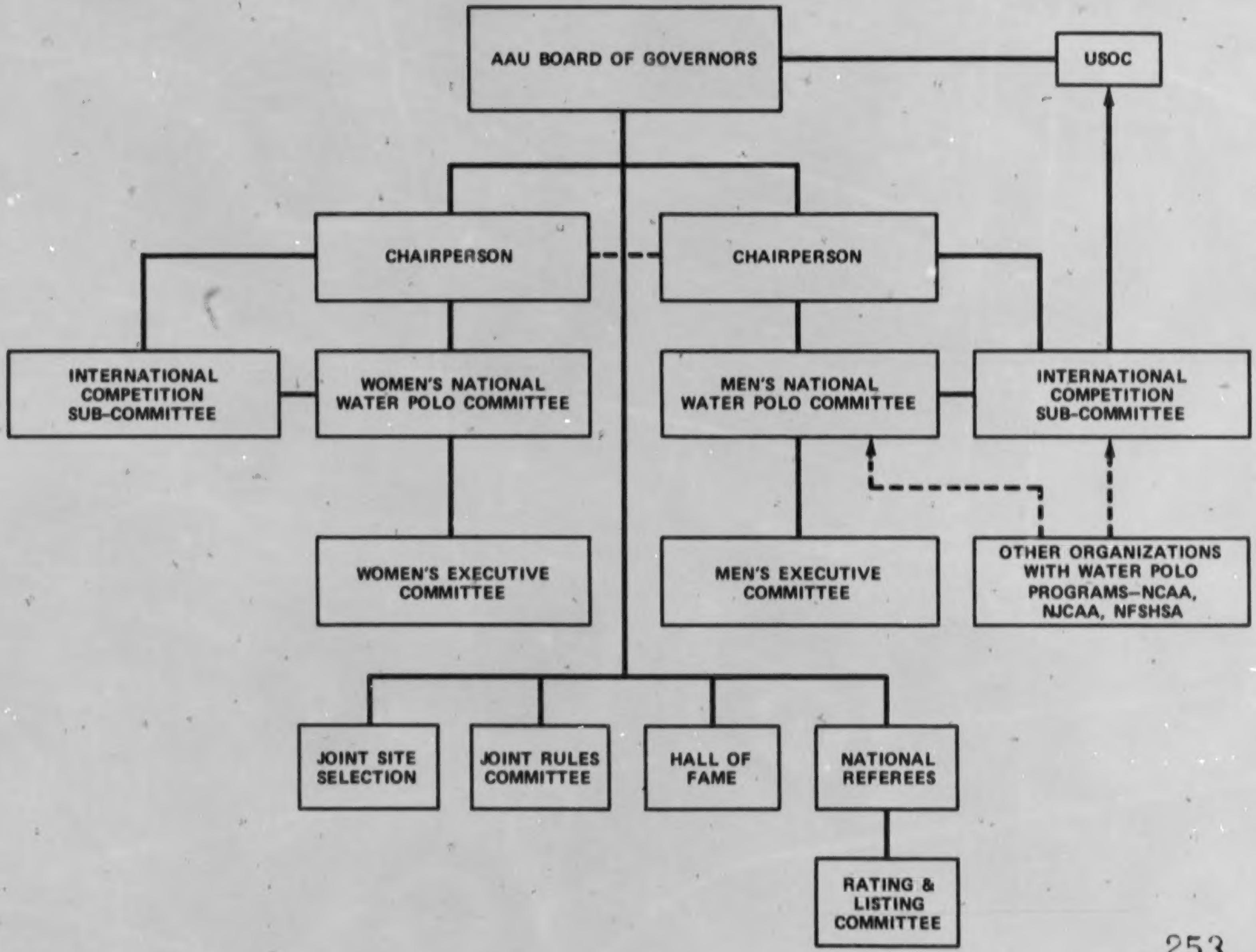
The AAU has been designated by FINA as NGB for water polo in the U. S. Thirteen of the 15 AAU regions have water polo programs. In addition, the AAU conducts national championships for both men and women, as well as age group competition and a Junior Olympic program. In an effort to bolster its development program, a coaching staff for a national junior squad has been selected. Finally, the AAU fields a senior men's national squad and has organized three regional women's teams (East, South, and West). In 1975 the AAU registered 2,640 athletes as water polo players. Of this number, the AAU reported 171 registered women water polo players. However, this number could be conservative, as many athletes who register as swimmers and synchronized swimmers also play water polo.

Men's and women's water polo programs are administered separately by identical committees, as shown on the following chart. The committees generally meet at the annual AAU convention, although "airport meetings" and other committee meetings are held at, or immediately following, the indoor or outdoor championships.

The committees consist of volunteers, coaches and athlete representatives. However, since these athletes do not have their expenses paid, most cannot afford to attend meetings.

At the 1975 AAU convention, the Men's International Competition Sub-Committee was reconstituted to assume the functions of the USOC Water Polo Committee as well as other duties pertaining to the national team and international competition. Included among the sub-

WATER POLO ORGANIZATION CHART


AAU BOARD OF GOVERNORS
USOC
CHAIRPERSON
CHAIRPERSON
INTERNATIONAL COMPETITION SUB-COMMITTEE
WOMEN'S NATIONAL WATER POLO COMMITTEE
MEN'S NATIONAL WATER POLO COMMITTEE
INTERNATIONAL COMPETITION SUB-COMMITTEE
WOMEN'S EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
MEN'S EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
OTHER ORGANIZATIONS WITH WATER POLO PROGRAMS—NCAA, NJCAA, NFSHSA
JOINT SITE SELECTION
JOINT RULES COMMITTEE
HALL OF FAME
NATIONAL REFEREES
RATING & LISTING COMMITTEE

committee's responsibilities were:

- Selection of the national coach and assistant national coach;
- Maintenance of lists of qualified coaches to serve as national team managers, and qualified referees for international competition;
- Selection of a national training squad – not to exceed 30 players – from among those participating in the National Outdoor Championship; and
- Development of a four-year budget for training and competition.

The International Competition Sub-Committee consists of eight delegates elected by the AAU Men's Water Polo Committee to four-year terms, three delegates appointed by the Chairman of the Water Polo Committee to serve one-year terms, four athlete representatives, and one delegate each from NFSHSA, the NCAA, U. S. Water Polo Referee's Association, the Armed Forces, and the California Community Colleges. The NCAA representative is the chairman of the NCAA Water Polo Rules Committee. The other organizations are encouraged to appoint delegates who are active in national and international competition, while the high schools are asked to send a representative from the California Interscholastic Federation.

As with the old USOC Water Polo Committee, the International Competition Sub-Committee is composed primarily of school/college coaches. Of the 20 members for the 1977-1980 quadrennial, at least eight will be coaches. In the 1973-1976 quadrennial, nine of the 16 members on the USOC Water Polo Committee were school/college coaches.

For a discussion of some of the side effects of this domination of AAU water polo by coaches, see the section on Development.

Other Major Organizations

In addition to the AAU, with its 2,640 registered water polo athletes, members of the school/college community and the YMCA conduct strong national water polo programs. The high schools, which conduct water polo programs involving over 10,500 boys, are an important link in the development of water polo.* Although no national-level interscholastic competition is conducted (in accordance with rules governing the nation's high schools), five All-American interscholastic teams are selected each year by the American Swimming Coaches Association. Additionally, many interscholastic players participate in AAU summer competition.

No less than 57 NCAA member schools sponsor intercollegiate water polo programs for approximately 1200 athletes. An additional 9,800 students (of which 750 are women) participate in intramural water polo programs.

Although the NCAA programs are totally independent of the AAU effort, the bulk of AAU teams are composed of NCAA athletes and coaches. Indeed coaches of three of the four best AAU teams in 1976 were from the colleges. Further, most of the athletes who were on those teams were also members of college teams coached by those same individuals.

The NAIA, while reporting no participation figures in its water polo program, conducts its own championships each year. Finally, the YMCA sponsors national championships and designates its own All-American team.

RESOURCES

Personnel

All those who serve on the AAU water polo committee are volunteers, with the exception of an administrator at the AAU office. Club coaches also volunteer their time, as they generally are employees of schools or colleges.

The AAU Officials' Directory lists individuals qualified to serve as referees, timekeepers, goal judges and secretaries. The AAU water polo committee for referees has a rating system and a list by region of rated referees, which numbered about 100 in 1976.

Facilities/Equipment

As noted earlier, championship games are played in a pool 30m by 20m and at least six and one-half feet deep. Also required are two floating goals, each ten feet wide and three feet high.

Most college teams have access to adequate facilities, although suitable training hours are sometimes a problem if the water polo team must share facilities with swim and/or diving teams. The AAU does not own any facilities and relies on the school/college community and municipalities to supply pools for AAU club teams.

For the individual athlete, water polo is a relatively inexpensive sport. Below is a listing of equipment costs and other approximate costs that an athlete might incur:

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*Florida is the only state having an interscholastic water polo program for girls. Approximately 25 schools are involved and an annual state championship is held.

Equipment:

Swim suit(s)	$ 5 each
Polo ball	30 each
Bags	4 each
Warm-up suits	40 each
Total equipment	$79

In addition, an athlete will incur costs for club registration fees (approximately $20), pool time, travel to competition, and possibly coach fees. These costs can amount to $400-$500 a year.

Finance

The AAU water polo program is funded from AAU registrations and USOC development funds. For quadrennial 1973-76, the USOC appropriated the following amounts to water polo:

1973	$12,000
1974	14,400
1975	36,700
1976	26,700
	$89,800

AAU water polo registrations in 1975 (2,640 as of December 1975) provided the Water Polo Committee with over $1,300, all of which was used for administrative purposes. Since the AAU system requires an athlete to register only once (no matter how many AAU sports he/she participates in), and since many swimmers also play water polo, the allocation of funds to water polo administration does not benefit from these registrations unless the athlete registers as a water polo player first. Yet, no other sources of funds are consistently available from the national AAU.

For the year ended June 30, 1976, the Water Polo Restricted and Designated Fund balance was $3,652, representing an increase of $1,096 compared to June 30, 1975.

In the following breakdown of sources and uses of funds, figures in each category are based on data provided by the AAU and the USOC. The figures in each category may not represent the same 12-month period, however, and should not be employed as an *annual* "Sources and uses of funds" statement.

Sources of Funds

Category	*Amount*
Registration Fees	$ 1,320
Competitions	2,300
Other	32
USOC	
Development	11,000
Competition	15,300
Administration	400
Total Sources	$30,352

Uses of Funds

Category	*Amount*
Competitions	$ 1,839
USOC	26,700
Total Uses	$28,539

Analysis of data supplied by the AAU indicates that an additional $20,000 (approximate) was spent by sponsors of national championships and international events according to AAU office data.

The AAU has been unable to attract corporate sponsorship funds for water polo. Athletes, coaches and administrators, therefore, must make significant personal financial sacrifices to maintain their involvement in the sport. Water polo volunteers planned to begin a drive to raise funds for training the national and junior national squad in December 1976.

DEVELOPMENT

During the 1973-76 quadrennial, the chairman of the USOC Water Polo Committee decided to discontinue the development plan followed in the previous two quadrennials. Additionally, the position of the national coach changed hands no less than three times over the course of the four years, in keeping with previous practice that the national coach for each year would be the coach of the winning team at the National Outdoor Championships. These factors resulted in differing approaches, differing philosophies, and – ultimately – confusion among national team members. They further contributed to slowing the continuity and momentum which had marked the previous eight years which, in turn, hampered the performance of the U. S. team in international competition.

The old USOC Water Polo Committee was dominated by the school/college community, and particularly by coaches from that sector. Following selection of the national coach, the principal function of the committee was to designate the members of the national squad. This selection was carried out by a panel consisting of four coaches (including the national coach) and one administrator. This process has been the subject of some debate, because the coaches involved in the process are in a position to recruit athletes to their respective colleges with the understanding that during the summer, these athletes could play on the coaches' national or AAU teams. (Selection to the national squad is most often made from the four AAU teams which compete in the national championships.)

One direct consequence of this process is that the older members of a team, those with previous experience in international competition and those who were beyond college competition, failed to make the national team or spent much of their time sitting on the sideline while their collegiate counterparts gained experience. Additionally, confrontations between these players and the various national coaches led to a decline in morale. Frustrated by this turn of events, many left the sport. Resignations by these veterans, some of whom had brought the U. S. to its prominent status prior to 1973, resulted in a comparatively young and inexperienced national team.

It should be noted that in the current quadrennial, the Sub-Committee on International Competition has decided to revert to the methods of development and team selection which were in existence prior to 1973. As an indication of its "return to normalcy," the national coach who was recently selected will retain that position for the entire quadrennial. If funds are available, the national coach and assistant coach will be paid $2000. Also during this 1977-80 period the coaching staff and administrators will have regular monthly meetings and all members of the national squad and regional officials involved in water polo will receive regular communications. This was not the case in the past.

The chairman of the International Sub-Committee will prepare a Four-Year Plan for 1977-80. The national coach has received approval of a development plan for 1977. This plan requires $55,000 for training in preparation for the 1978 World Championships. The national coach and a support committee anticipate the need to raise $30,000 of this proposed budget in 1977 since the major portion of USOC development allocations generally do not come until the latter part of the quadrennial.

Athlete Development

The AAU does not conduct training camps or clinics for water polo players. Most grass roots development takes place in the school/college community which creates some difficulties when athletes accustomed to playing by college or interscholastic rules must adapt to the international style of play. The lack of development programs for older athletes is also a problem, since water polo players often reach their athletic peak during their late 20s and early 30s. The Hungarian team which won the Gold Medal in Montreal, for example, was composed of several players competing in their fourth Olympics.

Coaches Development

As described earlier, there is a considerable degree of overlap between the school/college community and the AAU with respect to coaches. There is no formal training or certification procedures for qualifying coaches for water polo at any level. While many coaches employed by the schools and colleges have degrees in physical education, they are at a disadvantage compared to their European counterparts when it comes to having access to the latest training methods or to the most pertinent research findings of the sports medicine community.

Officials Development

The Chairman of the AAU Water Polo Committee, the Chairman of the National Referee Rating and Listing Sub-Committee, the Chairman of the U. S. National Water Polo Officials Association, and the AAU Aquatics Administrator maintain and publish annually a list of experienced referees from throughout the nation. Classification and experience levels are as follows:

- –National–Accepted in the U. S. National Water Polo Officials Association. Qualified to officiate matches between National Teams and at the Senior Men's Outdoor National Championship.
- –A–Qualified to officiate at the Senior Men's Indoor National Championship, the Senior Women's National Championship, and the Zone III Qualification Tournament.
- –B–Qualified to officiate at other Zone Qualification Tournaments, Junior Men's National Championships, Junior Women's National Championships, and National and Regional Junior Olympic Championships.
- –C–Qualified to officiate at Junior Olympic Championships, Age Group Championships and club team matches.

A referee may be advanced to a higher classification if he has received an acceptable rating for the higher classification from at least three coaches and at least two-thirds of all reporting coaches. When annually publishing the list of acceptable referees, only reports for matches played in the preceding two years are considered and referees who have not received at least three acceptable reports, as well as acceptable reports from at least two-thirds of all reporting coaches, are dropped from the list. In order to be listed at the National Level classification, a referee must be recommended by the Chairman of the U. S. National Water Polo Officials Association and the Chairman of the Men's National Water Polo Committee. According to the list published in the 1976 official AAU Water Polo rule book, the U. S. has eight National Level, four A Level, ten B Level, and 47 C Level referees. The National Level referees are recognized by FINA and may officiate at international meets.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

AAU water polo is played in accordance with FINA rules with certain minor modifications or amendments made by the AAU Joint Rules Committee. However, most U. S. athletes must learn two sets of rules since the school/college community uses the so-called scholastic rules.

FINA has adopted, albeit slowly, certain U. S. recommendations for rules changes. Many of these recommendations came from college water polo. Although AAU players prepare for international competition under FINA rules, most school-age athletes and their coaches follow scholastic rules nine months of the year. The school/college game, in contrast to the international game, has the following features:

- Two referees, rather than one, although in 1978 FINA will move to two referees at major international events;
- A faster game tempo (in international competition the game re-starts from the center field position after a goal is scored; in scholastic water polo the game is re-started by the goalies);
- A longer game (seven- to eight-minute quarters versus five-minute quarters in international water polo); and
- Three time-outs (no time-outs are allowed in international rules).

Differences in scholastic and FINA rules are gradually disappearing. Although no one group of U. S. water polo players, coaches, and officials can agree which set of rules is best, almost all believe that for basic development, as well as to improve international performance, U. S. water polo should be played under one set of rules.

Domestic Competitions

The AAU sponsors numerous national championships annually. Below is a list of the men's domestic competition:

- Association and/or regional club matches,
- Senior men's national outdoor (maximum of 12 teams), and
- Senior men's national indoor.

Women's water polo includes the following competitions:

- Senior women's national outdoor,
- Senior women's indoor, and
- Association and/or regional club games.

Junior water polo competitions include:

- National Junior Olympic Championship,
- Boys and girls 15 and under, and
- Junior National Championship for men and women, indoor and outdoor.

International Competition

In addition to Olympic, Pan Am and World competitions, the U. S. national team travels to Europe annually when funds are available to play countries such as Holland, Italy, Spain, USSR, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Romania and Germany.

The U. S. generally travels with a squad of 14 players and three officials (two coaches and one manager). The AAU development committee has recommended that a referee accompany the U. S. team to gain experience and to provide incentives for referees to improve their skills.

The AAU has taken three steps to provide international competition for women: the establishment of a separate Women's International Competition Committee within the structure of the AAU Water Polo Program; establishing a U. S.-Canadian Invitational Tournament involving two Canadian Clubs and U. S. teams from the East, South and West; and inviting teams representing Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand and Mexico to compete in Honolulu in the summer of 1976.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Water polo in the United States is still in its formative stage. As the women's game becomes more popular, and colleges increase their quota of scholarships for men's water polo, and the AAU continues to use its network to establish programs, the sport will grow.

Following the 1972 Olympics the U. S. appeared to be destined for leadership in international water polo. However, in 1973, the start of a major decline in U. S. performance in international water polo began. The 1973 performances in Europe and the fifth place at the 1973 World Championships were disappointing after the Bronze Medal in 1972. In 1975 the U. S. slipped to eighth in the World Championships and lost the Pan American Games title and a spot in the Olympics to Mexico. From feast to famine in three years.

Partly because of lack of funds, partly because of differences in philosophies and style of play between coaches, and partly because of the decision of the Chairman of the USOC Water

Polo Committee not to prepare and present a development plan for 1973-76 to his committee, the gains made prior to the 1972 Olympics largely dissipated. Players retired because of dissatisfaction with the style of coaching of the national squad and because of the demands of their careers.

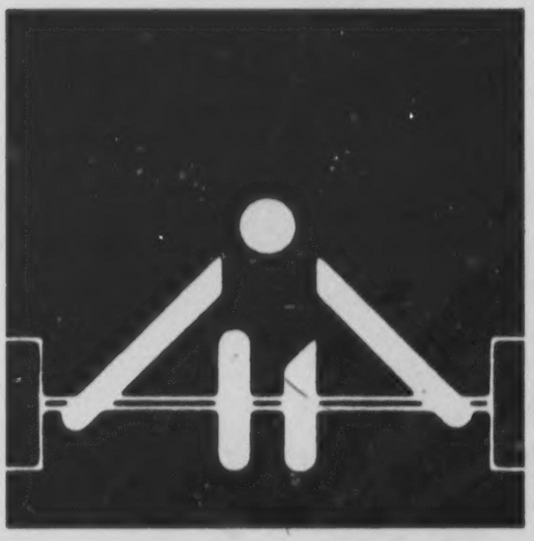
In spite of these reversals, a spirit of determination and team work still exists in the AAU committees. U. S. water polo needs funds—not a lot, in comparison to other Olympic sports, but sufficient to provide for employment of coaches and administrators as required, funding of national squad training, broken-time payments and international travel for a senior and junior team, and water polo players need access to pools at reasonable times during the day. Although the sport has experienced significant growth in the past few years, a broadened participation base is needed if our international performance is to improve as rapidly as possible.

The AAU network of associations could be of benefit in this connection. To assist the associations, the water polo committee could make available such materials as instructional films, coaches training manuals and other aids. Additionally, the committee could arrange to send the national squad on exhibition tours, as was done in a limited manner some years ago.

The use of multiple sets of rules acts as an impediment to the development of athletes, coaches and officials. Review of the rules to determine where more commonality can be realized is required.

Combining the steps which have already been taken to restore many of the sound development practices in existence prior to the 1973-76 quadrennial with steps to address the issues described above will result in Water Polo making significant progress in its effort to achieve its goals, both in this country and around the world.

WEIGHTLIFTING



Revealing comments of a U. S. national weightlifting champion describe with clarity the discouraging situation for lifters in this country:

> "I don't want to sound like a complainer, because I'm young and I don't have a family to support, so I can lift full time. But I'm all by myself here. In Russia and Bulgaria all of the lifters are medically monitored constantly. Heck, I know that hard training affects my kidneys and raises my blood pressure and increases the white blood cells, but what am I supposed to do, take my own blood count? They won't pick the U. S. team until a month before the Games, at which time we'll get a big two weeks to train together. In Eastern Europe they live and train together all year long. How the heck can you compete against that?"

Ultimately, this athlete could not. He made the 1976 U. S. Olympic team, competed in Montreal (no medal), and was then disqualified when his steroid tests came back from the laboratory as positive.

This athlete of international caliber was victimized by the problems which plague his sport: the lack of an effective organization, of public support, and of training assistance—in medical matters, technique, and facilities. Even the drug disqualification can be viewed as the fault of our system. Medically and politically naive, American lifters are characterized by a leading medical expert as not knowing "which pills to take, how many to take, how long to stay on them or how long to stay off them."[1]

Although anabolic steroids[2] have been declared illegal for all Olympic and most other international competitions,[3] many athletes have been taking them in an effort to improve their performance. The effects of these drugs, however, remain a highly controversial subject in the medical community, and there is evidence that they can do as much harm as good to the average athlete. Studies show conflicting results regarding increase in body size, measures of strength, and improvement in performance. However, known side effects include decreased or increased sexual desire, fainting, headache, lethargy, aggressive behavior, liver disease, abnormal blood sugar, blood fat and blood pressure levels, gastrointestinal hemorrhage, and sterility. Almost all these side effects appear to be reversible, but there are no guarantees.

Nevertheless, many weightlifters say they know of no champion lifters who have not taken steroids at some time in their lives. The Eastern Europeans in particular are known to have taken large doses of the various kinds of steroids as a regular part of their supervised training programs, without suffering disqualification in competition. Escalation in the steroid race makes many American athletes feel compelled to take steroids in order to be able to compete effectively. However, according to a British authority on weightlifting, most athletes

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[1] Mirkin, Gabe, M.D., "Pills with More Questions than Answers"; Sports Medicine, *Washington Post*, 1976.

[2] Anabolic steroids are produced in small amounts by the healthy body, and apparently function in some way to heal damaged tissue. Artificial steroids were originally produced to build up tissue in a person with a disease or injury which causes severe weight loss, such as malnutrition, disseminated cancer or severe burns, conditions that lower the body's ability to produce its own anabolic steroids.

[3] Various international sports federations, as well as the International Olympic Committee, have regulations against steroids and other drugs.

"...would welcome drug tests if they would ensure that no drug taker in the world can escape detection. The athletes themselves, on the whole, want to come off steroids." Meanwhile, athletes who receive informed guidance in the use of these drugs continue to perform exceedingly well in international competition, and most U. S. athletes are forced to fend for themselves.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

The sorry state of affairs in U. S. weightlifting exists largely because the sport's organizational structure has not effectively assisted the sport's development, and because funds and programs to promote the sport have been seriously lacking. Even if an athlete takes up weightlifting at an early age, adequate support in all areas is so rare that competitive progress is extremely difficult to initiate and maintain.

To perform the lifts in the Olympic style discipline, a great deal of agility and coordination is required in addition to strength. Few sports fail to incorporate the benefits of weightlifting in training, and few schools, YMCAs, or professional teams are without weight-training equipment. Nevertheless, as an individual sport, Olympic weightlifting has suffered neglect and ridicule in this country.

As the obstacles encountered in Olympic weightlifting remain constant and discouraging, lifters come to be characterized by intense dedication and a special type of "aloneness." Olympic lifters must deal with a continual shortage of funds for activities and operations, a lack of accessible and available facilities, a lack of developmental programs for athletes and coaches, insufficient information on the proper training techniques and methods of conditioning, limited opportunities for competition at all levels, and generally inadequate promotional activities.

History of World Rank

From the time the United States first organized a weightlifting team in 1928, the sport has had a paradoxical existence. In the 1930s, '40s and '50s, U. S. weightlifters were among the world leaders in all aspects of the sport, from training techniques to performance standards. However, American athletes' dominant position in Olympic lifting has eroded as the programs in other foreign countries have begun to receive increased emphasis and support. United States lifters now rank behind those from Russia and other West European countries. At the 1976 Olympics 22 of the 27 medalists in the nine weightlifting classes were from Russia, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, or East Germany. The USSR received more than half of all the Gold Medals awarded and one-third of the Silver.

America's ranking in the sport has vacillated from an unofficial team fourth place in the 1928 Olympic Games to the all-around championship of the 1948 Games, at which the U. S. won four Gold, three Silver and two Bronze Medals. In the 1952 and 1956 Games, U. S. Olympic lifters continued to maintain their overall superiority, but weightlifters from all over the world began to show promise, particularly those from the Soviet Union.

Starting in 1960, U. S. performance in weightlifting entered the period of steady decline in which the country now finds itself. No medals were won in 1972 and only one, a Silver, was received by an American lifter in the 1976 Olympic Games.

In the smaller arena of hemispheric competition, the United States has done well in the Pan American Games, winning the team championship each time until 1975 when Cuba somewhat unexpectedly took top honors. Thus, even in this hemisphere, U. S. dominance is beginning to be challenged as the performance of athletes from other countries steadily improves. United States athletes continue to lift their personal bests in Olympic competition, but these totals remain below current world standards. It can be argued that this is due not to an inherent lack of talent but to basic inadequacies in development programs resulting from a lack of funds.

Events in International Competition

Under present rules of the Federation Halterophile Internationale (FHI), the following lifts, participants, and categories make up the programs used in all official FHI competitions: the Olympics, the World Championships, and all Continental and Regional Games (such as the Pan American Games).

FHI recognizes the following lifts, which must be taken in this order, in all competitions under FHI rules:

1. Two Hands Snatch.
2. Two Hands Clean and Jerk.

FHI recognizes world records on these lifts, both individually and combined, for both seniors and juniors.

Lifters compete within the categories established by the rules according to their body weight. Their final classification is calculated in accordance with the total weight lifted and accepted as correct by the referees.

Until very recently, there were nine categories of competitors for seniors and juniors. Effective January 1, 1977, however, a 100 kg. class will be added to the categories listed below. All competitions under FHI rules must follow this sequence of body-weight categories without rearranging the order of the competitions:

1. Fly weight	up to 52 kg.
2. Bantam weight	up to 56 kg.
3. Feather weight	up to 60 kg.
4. Light weight	up to 67.5 kg.
5. Middle weight	up to 75 kg.
6. Light heavy weight	up to 82.5 kg.
7. Middle heavy weight	up to 90 kg.
8. Heavy weight	up to 110 kg.
9. Super heavy weight	over 110 kg.

Nine competitors per country are permitted, plus two reserves, with a maximum of two lifters per category. For example, a country can enter one Bantam weight, one Feather weight, two Middle weights, two Light heavy weights, one Middle heavy weight, two Heavy weights and no Fly, Light or Super heavy weights.

Two Hands Snatch

The bar is placed horizontally in front of the lifter's legs. It must be gripped, palms downwards, and pulled in a single movement from the ground to the full extent of both arms vertically above the head, while either "splitting" or bending legs. The bar must pass with a continuous movement along the body, of which no part other than the feet may touch the ground during the execution of the lift. The weight which has been lifted must be maintained in the final motionless position, the arms and legs extended, the feet on the same line, until the referee's signal to replace the bar on the platform. The turning over of the wrists must not take place until the bar has passed the top of the lifter's head. The lifter may recover in his own time, either from a "Split" or a "Squat." The referee's signal is given as soon as the lifter becomes absolutely motionless with the weight in control.

Two Hands Clean and Jerk

1st Part: Clean. The bar is placed horizontally in front of the lifter's legs. It must be gripped, palms downwards, and brought in a single movement from the ground to the shoulders, while either "splitting" or bending the legs. The bar must not touch the chest before the final position. It must then rest on the clavicles or on the chest or on the arms fully bent. The feet must then be returned to the same line, legs straight, before performing the Jerk. The lifter may make this recovery in his own time.

2nd Part: Jerk. Bend the legs and extend them, and bring the bar to the full vertical extension of the arms. Return the feet to the same line, arms and legs extended and await the referee's signal to replace the bar on the platform. The referee's signal is given as soon as the lifter becomes motionless in all parts of the body.

These regulations are used in all sanctioned competitions in the United States, local as well as national, and for any invitational events among FHI member countries. According to international rules each lifter is permitted three attempts at each of the two official lifts, and the weight of the bars used must be progressively increased by increments of five kilograms after successful lifts. In order to judge a lift as successful, two out of three officials must be in agreement and certify it as such. A request for an increment of 2.5 kilograms indicates the last attempt. The international contest rules permit a fourth attempt for the record (outside the competition) if a lifter has come within ten kilograms of a world record. Fourth attempts are not permitted under AAU rules.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) is recognized by the Federation Halterophile Internationale (FHI) as the national governing body (NGB) for weightlifting in the U.S. As is the case with other sports administered by the AAU, weightlifting is guided by its own Committee within the AAU.

The sport currently consists of three separate disciplines: Olympic weightlifting, powerlifting, and physique contests. Initially, these three interests were administered by a single AAU committee structure. At the AAU's 1976 Annual Convention, the sport was reorganized so that each discipline will be administered by a separate AAU committee and will affiliate independently with its respective international federation.[1] However, these groups continue to cooperate and informally coordinate their activities to avoid possible conflicts.

The Chairman of the AAU Olympic Weightlifting Committee is elected at the annual meeting to a one-year or two-year term, at the Committee's discretion (generally, no chairman may serve more than four consecutive years). In 1976, voting members of the Committee consisted of: 13 elected Regional Vice Chairmen, 18 At-Large Representatives appointed by the Chairman, representatives from allied national organizations, and eight Athlete Representatives elected by the athletes. The Chairman, with consent of the five-man Executive Board, appoints the following Supervisory Vice Chairmen: Finance, Rules Legislation, Coaching Coordinator, National Officiating and Technical Rules, Coordinator, Secretary, Training Camps and Clinics, Masters Program, Fund Raising and Public Relations, and Collegiate Weightlifting Coordinator. In addition, there are 25 sub-committees including International Selection, International and National Referee Cards and Testing Procedures, Age Group and One Lift Competition, Liaison to Military Service, Weightlifting for the Handicapped, and Grievance.

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[1] Olympic Weightlifting – FHI; Powerlifting – International Powerlifting Federation; and Physique – International Federation of Body Builders.

The Weightlifting Committee elects its representatives to the U. S. Olympic Committee (USOC) and to the international federation. It also locates championships, makes rules, establishes budgets and programs, and determines which organizations are represented on the various subcommittees.

A notable characteristic of this committee is that its membership has remained remarkably unchanged for 20 years. Many of those in charge in the 1950s are still in charge in the 1970s. While this is due, in part, to the sport's extremely small base of support, few steps have been taken to effect real change. Some argue that allowing persons with many years of experience to retain positions of responsibility and authority indefinitely can provide stability and continuity; others point out that, however, it can also lead to stagnation and a stifling of innovation. Those most involved in weightlifting seem to believe that there is merit in retaining the same leadership.

Although provided for by the AAU code and adhered to on paper, very few athletes actively participate in the business of the AAU Weightlifting Committee. Part of the constraint is financial since athletes receive no travel funds to attend meetings and are not greatly encouraged to do so. Further, no current athletes serve on the Executive Board, the Finance Sub-committee or on the very important International Selection Sub-committee which chooses athletes, coaches and officials for various international competition. The selection process is of particular concern as it has never been made public, resulting in severe criticism in the past. However, at the most recent national Weightlifting Committee meeting it was determined that in 1977 membership on the selection sub-committee will be opened to athletes for the first time.

Other Major Organizations

Competitions and instruction in Olympic lifting are practically non-existent outside the AAU umbrella. However, the AAU has working agreements with organizations such as the YMCA, Catholic Youth Organization and NAIA spelling out rights and prerogatives which are consistent with AAU regulations for conducting meets and contests and defining amateur status.

Weightlifting activities and competitions also are sponsored by some high schools and colleges; again most are carried out under the auspices and jurisdiction of the AAU. According to information from the NCAA, NAIA and NJCAA, no colleges or universities currently sponsor varsity weightlifting teams, even though most educational institutions with athletic departments have weight equipment and more than adequate facilities for training and competitions. Some colleges offer intramural or physical education programs in weightlifting, however, as do some high schools. A few city departments of recreation sponsor competitions and training in weightlifting with the assistance of AAU officials and/or staff, but programs are localized.

Relationship with the International Federation

Relations between the U. S. weightlifting NGB and the international governing body are generally satisfactory with the exception of a few personality conflicts. Communication is usually good, however, and since the regulations governing both organizations are similar, few substantive conflicts arise.

RESOURCES

Personnel

All weightlifting administrators are volunteer and pay their own expenses to meetings and competitions. In the past, the AAU supplied a part-time staff person and the Weightlifting Committee sponsored a national coaching coordinator who received minimal funds beyond expenses for the conduct of various programs. As of mid-1976, the part-time staff position was terminated and in September 1976 the Weightlifting Committee replaced the coaching coordinator and eliminated the salary.

Finance/Funding

Much of the financial assistance supplied to weightlifting in the last 50 years has come from Robert Hoffman and his weightlifting complex: the York Barbell Company, the York Barbell Club, Bob Hoffman Products (health food supplements), and his bi-monthly publication *Strength and Health.* Often characterized as the "Father of American Weightlifting," the 77-

year-old Hoffman has spent "substantial" monies on the sport over the years. Estimates of his expenditures begin at $600,000 and range upwards, with most of it having been used for the training and competition expenses of elite level competitors.

Other financial assistance for aspiring weightlifters has come from industrial recreation groups, individual companies, civic or community organizations, YMCAs and interested and generous individuals.

The USOC supplied $25,000 to weightlifting in both 1975 and 1976 for team development and preparation to defray expenses for coaching, team travel and training, and for some coaching materials. Before the recent reorganization of the AAU Weightlifting Committee, monies were divided among the activities of Olympic lifting, powerlifting and body building. Many in weightlifting believe that the USOC financial structure is too rigid and cannot accommodate the changing nature of the sport. The Weightlifting Committee is required to submit a four-year line-item budget, which may not be altered during that quadrennial. Funds may not be shifted to meet unforseen expenses or to support special projects. Therefore, it is almost impossible to conduct a flexible national program when changes or reassessments are allowed only every fourth year.

Much of the Weightlifting Committee's finances are funneled through the National AAU. Many connected with the sport feel that while the benefits and services provided by such an umbrella-type structure are considerable, certain drawbacks exist, primarily in the area of accountability and fund allocation. For example, it has been charged that locally-generated dollars are sometimes untraceable as they are funnelled through the AAU budgetary labyrinths, and funds are not always spent in the way those closely involved with the sport feel is proper. For example, many would prefer to have funds spent on coaching and training clinics rather than on administration and elite level athletes only. Additional problems occur when satisfactory answers and actions with regard to budgetary queries/grievances are not forthcoming. The 1975 Europe vs. the Americas Weightlifting Championships in Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, for example, netted $3,000. The event's sponsors received half of that sum and the Weightlifting Committee understood that it was to get the remaining $1,500 for having organized the competition. However, the check the committee received from the AAU was for just over $900. As of this writing, no written response to numerous Weightlifting Committee inquiries has been issued by AAU House to explain the whereabouts of the balance.

The following shows income and expenditures for FY 1976.

AAU WEIGHTLIFTING
FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR 1976[3]

Revenues	
Registration Fees	$ 4,100
Contributions	4,000
Competitions	1,664
Other	1,350
	$11,114
Expenditures	
Competition	$ 7,239
Administration	
Team Fund	2,508
Allocation of National Headquarters Costs	14,000
	$23,747

In addition, it is estimated that funds spent by sponsors of national championships and international events amounted to approximately $20,000 for the most recent 12 months for which figures were available. These figures were derived from estimates of individual events provided by the AAU. The income offsetting these costs were provided by gate receipts, concessions, local sponsorships, etc. No details of these are available.

Gymnasium facilities adequate for weightlifting practice exist in most areas of the country. However, facilities often are not available to lifters as other sports tend to command their use.

Many weightlifters own their equipment and exercise gear. Minimum space is needed for practice.

The cost of a basic set of Olympic standard lifting weights is about $200. If salvage materials are used, a weightlifting platform 13′ 1½″ square of 2″ x 10″ planks on edge can be built for $100 or less.

In many communities there are exercise or workout rooms in schools, colleges, athletic clubs, YMCAs, recreation departments, and health clubs. Generally adequate facilities could be made available, therefore, if the sport received assistance to generate interest in it.

DEVELOPMENT

Participants

There are approximately 3,000 registered Olympic weightlifters in the United States. This compares to 20,000 in Bulgaria (with a total population of 9 million) and over 500,000 in Russia. It is estimated that there are thousands of athletes in the U. S. who currently lift weights for various reasons and have access to facilities and equipment. However, the widespread use of weights cannot automatically be translated into potential competitive lifters since Olympic weightlifting is a sport requiring certain skills and mental attitudes. Nevertheless, it does indicate that a much broader potential base exists than the paltry number of currently active competitors would indicate.

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[3] Statement derived from general information provided by the AAU. Figures presented are estimates. Actual expenditure figures may vary considerably in either direction.

Athlete Development

Robert Hoffman and the York Barbell Company have been instrumental in the development of U. S. Olympic weightlifting since the sport's beginnings in the 1920s and '30s. Most lifters have received York-sponsored support or stimulus at one time or another and would not have been as successful without it. However, Hoffman and his small, close-knit group of associates, most of whom were once champion lifters themselves, have dominated the U. S. weightlifting scene and are accused of stifling both change and competition. As one member of the U. S. Olympic team puts it, "You don't have to lift for the York Barbell Club, but face it, the Olympics are only one year out of four. York is the only club that pays lifters' expenses, and what are you going to do the other three years if you don't have the money to train or travel to events?" It costs a weightlifter of international caliber between $2,000-$2,500 per year to meet expenses associated with training and travel to competitions.

In the many years of his support of the weightlifting program, Hoffman has never moved outside the small sphere of elite level competition. No significant programs have been sponsored by York for grass roots development, for recreation, or for those athletes past prime lifting age, although it is not York's responsibility to do so. Significant effort in training coaches or developing technique also has been absent except for some peripheral and short-lived assistance to the national coaching coordinator program, in existence between 1973 and 1976. Thus, while Hoffman has in many ways been a positive force in U. S. weightlifting, he has been primarily a businessman and not a promoter of coaching or research efforts over the long term. Since York Barbell is the major source of financial support for weightlifting, Hoffman and York tend to control the sport, with predictable effects. Selected athletes receive the benefits of Hoffman's patronage (one went on to win a Silver Medal in Montreal) while others—either for lack of proximity or various personality conflicts—must struggle along on their own. Many who recognize the disadvantages of the present structure are actively seeking to expand the support base, particularly by finding additional corporate sponsorships.

There is a serious lack of instruction at all levels of U. S. weightlifting. The AAU's Junior Olympic Program receives only about 5% of weightlifting monies although no one dismisses its importance as the sport's talent pool or in terms of expanding the participation base. However, the present funding priority would seem to constrain the potential success and effectiveness of this program.

The competitive life of a weightlifter is long compared to that of athletes in other sports. Because of the tendency of weightlifters to become more proficient in their 30s and, in some cases, to remain actively competitive until close to 40 years of age, it is important to provide sufficient opportunity, encouragement, and incentive to ensure their continuation in the sport. Many of the best lifters in the United States have found it difficult, if not impossible, to remain in competition once out of school; there is little market for their lifting talents in other aspects of the sport—such as coaching and training other lifters. Nor does there seem to be an effective program to transfer the benefits of weightlifting to conditioning for other sports.

Coaches' Development

Coaching programs in this country are virtually nonexistent. There are very few opportunities for training instructors in the fundamentals of coaching Olympic lifting, even though proper coaching is absolutely critical to the sport. Adequate dissemination of research into related fields (physiology, nutrition, etc.) is sorely needed also. There are only an estimated 20 to 30 qualified weightlifting coaches in the country.

In 1973, the Weightlifting Committee inaugurated a program involving a national coaching coordinator who would instruct physical educators and former lifters in how to coach Olympic weightlifting as well as introduce youngsters across the country to the sport. The position was only part-time (weekends), with a minimum salary. In mid-1976 the idea was re-evaluated; the coordinator no longer receives any salary but the program is scheduled to continue although with somewhat less emphasis.

Officials' Development

Because the international federation has established a standardized system for testing and classifying referees and judges, the U. S. program for weightlifting officials is somewhat more developed than that for coaches. Anyone serving as an official referee or judge at international weightlifting events must be a member of a national governing body affiliated with FHI, and every international referee must hold a card issued by FHI. In order to be nominated as an international referee the candidate must (1) have practiced weightlifting, (2) be a national referee, (3) be proposed by his NGB, and (4) have proved his competence in an examination organized by FHI or by a competent authority recognized by FHI.

Referees are classified in two categories according to their ability and experience. Category 2 referees are eligible to referee national championships, international matches, and regional games. Category 1 referees may perform all Category 2 functions as well as officiate at World Championships and Olympic Games. They also may serve as members of an international jury of appeal. To be promoted from Category 2 to Category 1, a referee must attend a referee's course sanctioned by FHI and must prove his competence to referee the Olympic lifts before three Category 1 referees during the course of an international contest or national championship. These three Category 1 referees form a review committee and supervise the work of the candidates, each of whom must referee at least 100 attempts. Candidates must perform with at least 90% accuracy to earn promotion.

Accurate judging of whether a lifter's movements are in accordance with established rules and specifications is in large part subjective and is a difficult skill to teach. However, since an athlete is very vulnerable to an official's decision in the evaluation of his performance, the certification procedure attempts to standardize and ensure the quality of judging in an effort to preclude abuses of this potential referee control over lifters.

This certification procedure, while generally laudable, can also be an effective tool of control over officials. As with the judging of an athlete's performance, the evaluation of weightlifting referees by other referees – to determine whether or not the candidate is sufficiently qualified to hold the required official's card – is largely subjective. Officials are thus able to grant or withhold certification as they see fit.

There are now only approximately 30 Category 1 card holders and perhaps 40 Category 2 officials in the U. S. An estimated 150 individuals are qualified to be national level officials, but only about 75 are active. Recognizing the importance of developing and maintaining a strong officials' program, weightlifting administrators plan to designate 13 coordinators of regional rules clinics to set up yearly testing for officials. It is expected that the Weightlifting Committee will require successful passage of these annual tests, in addition to participation in other activities (clinics, seminars), by all officials wishing to keep or qualify for referees' certification. This process of validation is aimed at both increasing the number of officials and improving the quality of those who already have FHI approved ranking.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

Virtually no differences exist between the international rules of competition and those used by the U. S. weightlifting national governing body.

Domestic Competition

It is generally agreed that there are too few competitions and insufficient promotion and publicity to provide adequate incentive to weightlifters and generate public interest in the sport. Competitions for lifters in lower skill levels include intramural programs within local AAU clubs, athletic clubs, YMCA clubs, city recreation departments, a few high schools, and several colleges. Some AAU events occur at the regional level, and there are four major national championships held each year by the AAU; the Teen-Age or Junior Olympic Nationals for athletes under 20, the Collegiate Nationals for those in college, the Junior National Championships (for properly qualified lifters except first place winners of any past Senior or Junior Olympic Weightlifting Championships or any Olympic team members), and the Senior Nationals.

International Competition

The top level of international competition includes the Pan American Games, the World Championships, and the Olympic Games. Invitational meets among countries also are held, both in this country and abroad (only four have been hosted in the U. S. in the last 30 years, however).

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Although weightlifting has never been a popular competitive sport in this country, U. S. teams dominated the world scene in the 1930s, '40s and early 50s. Since then, however, other countries, notably the East European bloc, have begun to develop their Olympic-style weightlifting programs and U. S. world ranking has declined dramatically. However, the problems of the sport in this country are not due solely to increased emphasis on weightlifting elsewhere in the world.

Currently, U. S. Olympic weightlifting suffers from problems in structure and organization which result in a lack of adequate funding and development of the sport. General public misunderstanding of the sport further limits both the numbers of athletes attracted to it and the level of support it receives. More specifically, there are:

- Insufficient administrative activities and operations;
- A lack of available or accessible facilities;
- Too few developmental programs for athletes, coaches, and officials;
- Limited competitive opportunities both nationally and internationally;
- Not enough research and development in training techniques nor adequate dissemination of sports medicine information; and
- A lack of promotional activities and media exposure for the public's benefit.

Assistance in all these areas is required. In particular, to encourage innovation in the sport's administration, the AAU Weightlifting Committee must attempt to attract new members to its constituency to balance the traditional contributions of long-standing members. Athletes must be encouraged to become more involved. The Committee needs to generate interest and participation among young athletes, particularly by strengthening the Junior Olympic and Teenage Programs, and involving the school/college community.

Since funding is so crucial, perhaps a reassessment of NGB funding priorities is needed, along with development of other sources of financial support (additional corporate sponsorships, athlete employment, etc.). Finally, increased exposure and promotional efforts must be realized to dispel the myths surrounding weightlifting. All these actions will greatly contribute to providing lifters with an environment more conducive to their full development as athletes and to the development of the sport itself.

WRESTLING

In-fighting between the organizations which control wrestling in the United States is as intense as any which takes place on Olympic wrestling mats. One combatant in the struggle is the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU), which governs wrestling in this country and essentially is composed of an association of clubs. The other is the U. S. Wrestling Foundation (USWF), whose primary constituency is the school/college community, with the notable exception of the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA). The prize is the wrestling franchise and control of the international outlets for competition that go with it.

The dispute became formal in 1967, when AAU wrestling programs seemed to be losing effectiveness. U. S. success in the Olympics had gone from three Gold Medals in the 1960 Games (following a vigorous international exchange program in the late 1950s, including competitions with the Russians) to one Bronze in 1964. International exchanges involving U. S. teams in the mid 1960s were infrequent at best. Organizations backed by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) were challenging AAU franchises in basketball, gymnastics, and track and field. So with NCAA financial support, a group of men active in scholastic and collegiate wrestling formed USWF as an organization devoted solely to wrestling. As one of its first orders of business, the Federation attempted to displace the AAU as the governing body recognized by the Federation Internationale de la Lutte Amateur (FILA).

The initial round of the fight was quick and savage. In 1968, the FILA Congress passed a resolution requiring all member organizations to become "single purpose" in nature. In order to comply with FILA's requirement, the AAU Wrestling Committee drew up a Constitution which changed the name of the Wrestling Committee to the U. S. Wrestling Association AAU and gave the Wrestling Committee autonomy over wrestling matters (although the Wrestling Committee was still a member of the AAU and subject to the AAU Code).

This action was considered to be no more than a subterfuge by USWF, which pursued attempts to establish friendly relations with FILA and its President, Roger Coulon, in preparation for the expected franchise turnover in 1970.[1]

FILA was also unimpressed by the AAU's action. In mid-1970, the FILA Congress met and, under President Coulon's direction, ordered that the AAU be stripped of the franchise and that a committee composed equally of AAU and USWF representatives be formed to carry out the function of the national governing body (NGB).

FILA's joint committee administered the franchise for two years, but the AAU refused to participate on the board with USWF and boycotted all meetings. The AAU's boycott gave USWF effective control of the franchise. International exchanges involving U. S. teams picked up considerably; regular exchanges with the Russian and Polish national teams, now annual events, were resumed during this period.

The AAU, meanwhile, attempted to effect its reinstatement as FILA's member by using its influence with and through the USOC. The USOC first attempted to set up its own commission to administer the wrestling franchise. The AAU joined this commission, but FILA rejected the USOC proposal.

Roger Coulon died in the spring of 1971 and Milan Ercegan of Yugoslavia was appointed as the interim

[1] Such relations included the purchase of thousands of FILA rulebooks by USWF for its members. FILA viewed such purchases as evidence of the effectiveness of USWF programs; the AAU viewed them as attempts to improperly influence Coulon.

FILA President. At this time, the USOC disbanded its wrestling commission and USWF began preparing its application for USOC Group A[2] membership which is reserved for national governing bodies.

At the meeting of the USOC Board of Directors at Bartlesville, Oklahoma, in April 1972, the Group A membership application of USWF (and that of the Basketball Federation) was rejected. The status of the AAU as Group A member for wrestling was reaffirmed, and USOC President Clifford Buck was directed to certify the AAU as the NGB for wrestling to FILA.

At its 1972 meeting, the FILA Congress confirmed Ercegan as its new president. For a variety of reasons — including alleged irregularities in the voting which stripped the AAU of the franchise in 1970, USOC certification (through President Buck) of the AAU as the wrestling NGB, and the reported urgings of IOC President Brundage — the FILA Congress abolished the joint AAU-USWF Committee and reinstated the AAU as the FILA Representative from the United States.

For a time, a good deal of confusion existed both here and abroad about American FILA membership. FILA left decisions regarding USWF participation in foreign exchanges up to the AAU. The AAU stated that USWF could arrange and conduct exchanges as it wished, as long as it received prior sanction from the AAU. USWF, however, claimed that sanctions (and replies to requests for sanctions) were not forthcoming. Foreign nations seemed not to be sure which organization to deal with concerning exchanges. In 1973, with FILA approval, the AAU suspended USWF for conducting an unsanctioned exchange with Poland.[3] FILA's action served notice to foreign countries as to the possible results of contact with USWF, and USWF found it impossible to conduct further international exchanges.

In 1976, against a backdrop which included this Commission's examination of franchise disputes, the AAU and USWF for the first time discussed the possibility of ending their dispute. As a measure of good faith, immediately prior to the 1976 Olympic Games, the AAU President said that USWF would be taken off suspension. This request was granted although FILA President Ercegan stated that only one wrestling group within the U.S. could be responsible for wrestling. President Ercegan maintains that a method must be found to bring together the warring factions.

Despite renewed communication between the two groups, the AAU and USWF remain hostile toward and mistrustful of one another. Areas of general disagreement include:

—Membership

-The AAU makes eligibility for participation in international exchanges contingent upon USWF membership in the AAU; USWF wants international outlets without membership.

-Disagreement exists over what would constitute "fair" USWF representation in the AAU, and over whether such representation should be organizational, as the USWF would like, or by constituencies, as the AAU prefers.

—Registration

-Disagreement exists over responsibility for and method of registration of post-graduate athletes. Most of our world class athletes fall into the post-graduate category.

—Financing

-No agreement exists over a method of determining financial arrangements involving USWF international exchanges (assuming agreement on the other above points); USWF argues for special arrangements for each event, while the AAU would determine gate receipt percentages according to AAU Code schedules.

While FILA would like to see the dispute solved, it probably will not intervene directly. FILA is at present likely to continue to recognize the AAU as the NGB, but it would approve of any solution to the problem that is arrived at in a fashion that is consistent with FILA rules. It also appears that until the general causes of the continuing conflict between the AAU and the NCAA-led faction of the school/college community are resolved, it will be extremely difficult for the AAU and USWF to work effectively together — a condition which must ultimately work to the detriment of the sport and the athletes.

OVERVIEW

Status of the Sport

In spite of the polarization described above, U.S. wrestling is in surprisingly good shape. Competition between the two factions has had a stimulating effect on both AAU and USWF programs, making them stronger and more effective than they were in the late 1960s. More money is being raised and spent by both organizations, and more competitions and tournaments, especially on the national level, are available to wrestlers than ever before. Nevertheless, problems remain:

1) The franchise dispute continues to embitter people on both sides, making it difficult for partisans and non-aligned alike to devote the full measure of their effort to the sport. Because of the extreme politicization which U.S. wrestling has

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[2] See Volume II for a discussion of the present USOC.

[3] Poland was placed on probation by FILA for two years.

undergone, organizational considerations appear to play a disproportionate role in the policy decisions of both organizations.

2) Programs for post-graduate wrestlers are seriously underdeveloped. Although this country has an extensive development system for wrestling in the schools, programs for non-school wrestlers are lacking. As a result only a few hundred are able to continue in wrestling beyond college age. This is especially unfortunate in that wrestlers do not normally peak until their mid-twenties.

3) United States schools and colleges, which develop the majority of wrestlers, employ a "folk" style of wrestling which is substantially different from the styles used in international competition. Thus the pool of international style world class wrestlers in the U. S. is much smaller than might be expected, given our extensive programs.[4]

4) The Greco-Roman style is particularly dissimilar to the "folk" style used in the schools and colleges; development in Greco-Roman therefore takes place outside of the educational system, and is very limited.

5) Finally, both money and top-level coaches and officials are always in short supply.

Events in International Competition

International competition takes place in three different wrestling styles, each of which is divided into ten weight categories. "Greco-Roman" is a style of "upper body" wrestling, in which the object is to pin an opponent without grasping him below the hips (or tripping or otherwise using the legs in attack). Freestyle or "catch as catch can" wrestling is one in which both upper and lower body attacks may be used. As the name implies, competitors are free to pin an opponent as they can, although some holds (chokes, kicks, etc.) are banned for safety reasons. "Sambo" is a recently introduced Russian style of wrestling which combines aspects of wrestling and judo. Sambo competition is included in the World Wrestling Championships but has not yet been placed on the Olympic program.

The normal Olympic team complement is 20: 10 weight classes in each style.

History of World Ranking

American teams traditionally have done far better in freestyle wrestling than in Greco-Roman. In the Olympic years 1960, 1972 and 1976, U. S. wrestlers were second in the world in freestyle wrestling although during the intervening years U. S. performance slipped. On the other hand, Americans have never taken an Olympic medal in Greco-Roman events.

This disparity in performance may be explained by the fact that international freestyle wrestling is similar to the folk style used in American schools, while Greco-Roman is very different.[5]

American performance in Olympic and Pan-American freestyle competition during the past 20 years has been impressive:

OLYMPIC GAMES

	FREESTYLE			*GRECO-ROMAN*		
Year	*1st*	*2nd*	*3rd*	*1st*	*2nd*	*3rd*
1976	1	4	1	—	—	—
1972	3	2	1	—	—	—
1968	—	2	—	—	—	—
1964	—	—	1	—	—	—
1960	3	—	—	—	—	—

PAN-AM GAMES

	FREESTYLE			*GRECO-ROMAN*		
Year	*1st*	*2nd*	*3rd*	*1st*	*2nd*	*3rd*
1975	5	3	2	7	3	—
1971	7	2	—	No Event		
1967	8	—	—	No Event		
1963	8	—	—	No Event		
1959	8	—	—	No Event		

ORGANIZATION

Background

International competition in wrestling is sanctioned and controlled by FILA which currently recognizes the AAU as the national governing body for this sport in the U. S.

As mentioned above, a FILA constitutional requirement that FILA members be single purpose organizations was the grounds on which USWF originally made its franchise challenge. However, since FILA reinstated the AAU as the NGB in 1972, the AAU and FILA have maintained good relations.

National Governing Body

The AAU has represented the American wrestling program in international competition since before the first modern Olympics. Control of the franchise is exercised by the AAU Wrestling Committee (subject to the requirements of the AAU Code), which is organized into three style committees (freestyle, Greco-Roman, and Sambo) operating under an umbrella Executive Committee. The 12-member Executive Committee oversees and coordinates the activities of the three style committees. Almost all members of the Wrestling Committee have experience either as active competitors or as coaches.

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[4] At most, only 20% of active wrestlers in this country compete using international styles and the majority of these wrestlers compete in freestyle.

[5] In 1975 Greco-Roman was added to the Pan American Games and the U.S. team won seven Gold and three Silver Medals. However, the Western Hemisphere is very weak in Greco, which is primarily an Eastern Europe wrestling style.)

Membership on the Wrestling Committee is as follows: each AAU Association appoints one or two representatives, depending on the number of active wrestlers in the association; allied member organizations (which include the NAIA, the military services, the NJWB, YMCA, and Order of DeMolay) have at least one representative but may appoint three if they conduct a national championship in the sport; from four to ten athlete representatives must be elected by active athletes. In addition, the AAU President may appoint up to five at-large delegates to the committee, and the Chairman and the committee itself can each appoint up to one at-large delegate for every ten regular committee members.

Major wrestling programs conducted by the AAU cover a wide range of activities. First, the AAU arranges and sanctions all international competition involving American wrestlers, negotiating details of the tours, certifying the amateur status of U.S. athletes, and assuming reponsibility for travel arrangements for foreign teams in the U.S. and the conduct of U.S. teams overseas.

Second, the AAU is responsible for the selection, training, certification, and funding of the national team. Generally, the senior national team is involved in a minimum of two competitions per year (the World Championships and the World Cup). The junior national team normally competes at least once a year (in the Junior World Championships).

Third, the AAU maintains a national competitive structure which consists of regional and national tournaments for both juniors and seniors in the international styles of wrestling.

Fourth, in its capacity as NGB, the AAU conducts clinics for the training and certification of officials, as required by FILA. Other activities are undertaken by the AAU from time to time, such as conducting national training camps for the preparation of U.S. national teams and maintaining fund raising drives.

Other National Organizations

As described above, USWF is challenging the AAU for the leadership of U.S. wrestling. USWF is an association primarily of scholastic and collegiate level educational organizations and is governed by a 19-member Board of Directors. These Directors represent athletes and member organizations in the ratios listed below.

4—Active Athletes
2—Federation of Wrestling Clubs
2—NCAA (National Collegiate Athletic Association)
2—NFSHSA (National Federation of State High School Associations)
2—NJCAA (National Junior College Athletic Association)
2—At-Large
1—National Junior College Coaches' Association
1—National High School Wrestling Congress
1—U.S. Kids Wrestling Federation
1—U.S. Wrestling Officials Association
1—National Wrestling Coaches Association

USWF supports a full-time executive director and staff at its headquarters in Stillwater, Oklahoma. Also in Stillwater, USWF recently has completed the construction of a Wrestling Hall of Fame to help promote the sport by giving recognition to outstanding wrestlers.

Because USWF was under suspension until recently, it does not now conduct international competitions. Instead, its efforts have been directed toward building strong domestic programs, putting it in direct competition with the AAU for control of local tournaments. USWF maintains a national competitive structure in the international styles for both juniors and seniors and promotes the sport through its Hall of Fame, the publication "The Federation Wrestler," and a summer camp program designed to improve the technique of the young athletes.

The international wrestling season extends approximately from March through September. Both AAU and USWF programs extend through this period. The U.S. school/college community, however, conducts its primary wrestling season during the winter.

Much of the wrestling in this country takes place under the auspices of neither USWF nor the AAU. The NCAA, NAIA and NJCAA all conduct intercollegiate dual meets, district competitions and national tournaments in the U.S. folk style wrestling. High School Federation members conduct interscholastic dual meets and state championships in folk style.

RESOURCES

Personnel

Approximately 120 volunteers (100 AAU and 20 USWF) are responsible for setting wrestling policy in their respective organizations. In addition, each organization supports a full-time administrator or executive director who has access to secretarial services.

Approximately 11,000 teachers act as wrestling coaches in the school/college community. Although qualifications for such positions (especially in the high schools) may be based more on teaching than on coaching abilities, no other form of wrestling coach certification exists in this country. These school/college wrestling coaches form the pool from which the AAU and USWF generally draw coaches.

Only about 70 Americans are currently certified by FILA to referee international-level competition. Of this number, only five are of the "Exceptionelle" class qualified to officiate at the Olympics.

No national program exists for certification/registration of referees for domestic competition; therefore, accurate figures are not available on the number of wrestling officials in this country. Such referee certification programs as exist are sponsored by the affiliates of the NFSHSA on a state-by-state basis.

Finance/Funding

Almost $400,000 was spent on the sport of wrestling in the fiscal year 1976 by the AAU, USWF, and USOC (see chart). The AAU's primary sources of income for the Wrestling Sport Fund are athlete registrations and gate receipts (especially from competitions involving foreign teams); approximately $25,000 per year is spent by the National Headquarters to support a full-time wrestling administrator and secretarial services as necessary. Major sources of USWF income include memberships (including athletes' registrations), grants (from the NCAA, NFSHSA, NJCAA and NWCA), and sales (medals, T-shirts, singlets, etc.). The USOC raises money for wrestling as for the other Olympic sports, through its general fund raising activities.

AAU Wrestling sports fund monies were used primarily to help defray expenses incurred in arranging competitions (both domestic championships and competitions involving foreign teams).

AAU*

FY Ending June 30, '76

REVENUES	
Registrations (Net: to sport fund)	$ 12,781
Competitions	40,491
Officials	5,707
Clinics	4,060
Other	617
	$ 63,656

EXPENDITURES	
Competition	$ 62,696
Development	4,549
Administration	
(fm: sport fund)	519
(fm: Nat'l HQ)	24,800
	$ 92,564

USWF

FY Ending August 31, '76

REVENUES	
Membership (Gross) athletes	51,000
Other	13,000
Grants	41,500
Competitions	15,000
Kids program	19,000
Sales	56,000
Advertising	8,000
Hall of Fame	2,500
Fund Raising	2,000
Rentals & Films	1,000
Other	2,340
	$211,340

EXPENDITURES	
Membership Services (esp. insurance)	32,000
Staff	48,000
Office	26,000
Competitions	13,000
Kids Memb. Svcs.	3,000
Merchandise	43,000
Newspaper	12,000
Hall of Fame	800
Fund Raising	500
Films	1,400
Liability insurance	1,500
Travel	4,000
Interest on loans	5,000
Other	6,800
	$197,000

USOC

FY 1976

EXPENDITURES	
Development	30,000
Team preparation	35,000
Committee expenses	750
Trials/Team training	27,900
	$ 93,650
TOTAL EXPENDITURE (APPROXIMATE) 1976	$383,000

*NOTE: Amounts derived from general figures provided by AAU. Not listed in the AAU figures are: money paid athletes for insurance ($2.00 each), and the share of funds the AAU national organization receives from wrestling registrations and spends on plant-related expenses.

USWF's major expenses included membership services (especially medical insurance for athletes), costs related to the headquarter's staff and physical plant, and costs of merchandise. USOC funds were used primarily to help fund (under AAU supervision) the Olympic trials and a 90-day training camp at which the best junior and senior athletes were brought together to train with the Olympic team.

Costs to Participants

The costs of transportation incurred by a world class athlete in his search for adequate competition and the lost income represented by time spent in necessary training and competition constitute the major expense for athletes. Coaches and officials may also find the funding of travel expenses a major problem. Other costs to sports participants are not likely to be prohibitive. Since wrestling matches can take place in almost any type of facility, equipment costs are minimal. Wrestling mats cost from $2.25 to $2.75 per square foot depending on the material (international rules require mats to be 39½ feet in diameter). The athlete's singlet costs approximately $10.00 to $20.00. Both equipment and facilities normally are accessible to any athlete who wishes to participate.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

Although no documentation is available on participation in other countries, many wrestling administrators maintain that there are more active wrestlers in the U. S. than in any other country in the world. In 1975, approximately 30,000 international style wrestlers registered with the AAU and approximately 25,000 registered with USWF. Both the AAU and USWF conduct their programs primarily in the summer so these figures do not reflect the great number of wrestlers participating in school/college programs. However, the following chart is an indication of the sport's participation base.[6]

ORGANIZATION	*ATHLETES*
NFSHSA	319,048
NJCAA	3,562
NAIA	2,873
NCAA	9,437

(Note: Figures for the above groups include both USWF and AAU wrestlers.)

Athlete Development

Normally, the development of wrestlers begins in the high schools, where athletes have access to coaching and facilities and where travel expenses are paid by the educational institution, and continues through college. Upon graduation from college, however, the athlete finds that effective wrestling programs cease to exist. Of the hundreds of thousands of wrestlers who participate in wrestling programs throughout their high school and college years, fewer than 500 adult non-school athletes continue in structured programs as amateurs, largely due to an inability to support both themselves and the costs of continued training and competition.

Coach and Official Development

There is no U.S. program for certifying coaches. Throughout the school system coaching is considered a teaching position; therefore, coaches are certified for their abilities as teachers in physical education or some other subject rather than for their technical skills in teaching wrestling. Often any teacher with a background in wrestling may be eligible to coach.

While the AAU funds and sponsors clinics through which FILA certifies referees for international competitions, NFSHSA is the only national organization which certifies officials across the country for domestic competitions. The AAU uses internationally-certified referees for its major competitions; the USWF, colleges, and high-schools normally use certified high school officials for their competitions.

COMPETITION

Rules and Standards

Although both the AAU and USWF conduct their programs using the international styles of wrestling, most school/college competition in this country employs the American folk style. International freestyle wrestling more closely resembles American folk style, with one significant difference: Greco-Roman techniques, which are largely ignored in the folk style, may be used in international freestyle. In international competitions, therefore, American wrestlers demonstrate superior lower body but inferior upper body techniques. Still, as indicated by the record, Americans do well in international freestyle wrestling.

No major differences exist in the rules of eligibility between the AAU and FILA. However, FILA rules do prohibit an amateur wrestler from earning his living by coaching wrestling. This contributes to the problem faced by athletes who wish to continue to compete after college.

International Competition

Regular international competitions in which wrestlers may participate are the quadrennial Olympic and Pan American Games and the annual World Championships and World Cup.

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[6] The school/college wrestlers listed on the chart wrestle U. S. folk style.

Normally, each wrestling season begins in March with competition for the World Cup. Various foreign exchanges and competitions such as the AAU and USWF regional and national championships take place through the rest of the summer and the season concludes with the World Championships. Selection of the national team for international events is the responsibility of the AAU Wrestling Committee.

In the past, the AAU Wrestling Committee nominated the U.S. Olympic Wrestling Committee, which established procedures for the selection of the Olympic wrestling team, (subject to review by the USOC). In selecting the 1976 U.S. Olympic wrestling team, a series of tournaments were designated as qualifiers for the Olympic Trials. Athletes were encouraged to compete in as many tournaments as possible and winners of the various tournaments were eligible to compete in a final tournament which determined the selections for the trials. The top six athletes in each weight class were to be selected for the trials, in addition to one or two other world class athletes in each weight class who could be selected by the U.S. Olympic Wrestling Committee.[7]

At the trials, athletes were seeded according to their finishes in the qualifier. Then the fourth, fifth, sixth place wrestlers (and the seventh and eighth wild-card selections, if any) founght in a round-robin. The winner of the round-robin then wrestled two out of three falls with the third place seed. Whoever won that match wrestled two out of three falls with the second place seed, and the winner of that bout wrestled two out of three falls with the athlete seeded first. The winner of this match made the Olympic team.

Coaches for the 1976 Olympic Team were elected from within and by the U.S. Olympic Wrestling Committee. These procedures have led to controversy, especially because the committee rarely publishes its criteria for selection. The charge is often made that selection is based less on merit than on rewards for loyalty. However, during the last Olympic Games, when coaches' selection was especially criticized, the U.S. team performed outstandingly.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Major problems which plague the sport of wrestling in this country are as follows:

1) The franchise dispute between the AAU and USWF diverts the sport's resources and prevents a major segment of the wrestling community (i.e., those athletes and organizations affiliated with USWF) from taking an active part in international competition.

2) Programs to address the financial needs of post-graduate athletes, officials, coaches and administrators are lacking. Members of these groups, especially the athletes, sometimes find the costs incurred by active participation in world-class level programs prohibitive.

3) The "folk style" wrestling taught in the school/college community does not emphasize techniques employed in international wrestling styles, especially Greco-Roman techniques.

A solution to the organizational dispute, to be truly effective, should come from the wrestling interests themselves. While talks continue between the feuding factions, hope for such a solution exists.

Barring agreement between the two parties, a solution could be imposed by FILA. Precedent for intervention by the international federation exists both in FILA's own history (as described at the beginning of this report) and in other sports such as basketball. If the dispute remains unresolved, the American Arbitration Association, in its role as arbiter of franchise disputes, will, with the aid of the central sports organization, impose a solution. Both the AAU and USWF sponsor effective and useful programs; there is no fundamental reason they cannot cooperate—but so far they have chosen not to do so.

Failure to end the dispute will probably mean that USWF will continue to lack international outlets and the AAU will continue to lack influence in the school/ college community, where most development takes place. In effect, the two halves of a comprehensive national wrestling program will remain separated. However, in an environment of cooperation between the two organizations, and given the incentive of involvement in foreign exchanges, USWF might be willing to use its influence with the school/college community to begin to bring the American folk style more into line with international wrestling styles.

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[7] This type of wild-card selection was designed to allow the Committee to include outstanding athletes who might have been injured or otherwise unable to participate in the qualifiers.

YACHTING

Shortly after the conclusion of the 1976 Olympics, a unique and unscheduled ceremony took place at Kingston, Ontario, the site of the yachting competition. There, the two-man British Tempest team, discouraged by their poor showing and appalled by the high cost of shipping their boat home, dramatized their discontent by setting fire to the vessel which had carried them through the seven days of competition. As a crowd gathered to watch the burning boat sink slowly into the waters of Lake Ontario, the crew member was heard to have remarked, "My captain has no class. He should have gone down with the ship."

It is unlikely that members of the U.S. Olympic yachting team shared the frustrations of their British counterparts; American sailors garnered two Silver Medals and one Bronze at the 1976 Games. Nevertheless, the story symbolizes in many ways the unique aspects of yachting—or sailing, as its practitioners prefer to call it. The ritual of the incident reflects the frustrations of those who have been defeated not only by their competitors, but by the elements as well. The tale suggests something of the personal sacrifice, in terms of both time and expense, necessary to race sailboats at the Olympic level. Finally, the novelty of the event underscores the changes which have taken place in the sport in recent years—particularly in the U.S.

OVERVIEW

Status of Sport

Until recently, national and international sailing set itself apart from the mainstream of amateur sports. Until 1974, American sailors belonged to a governing body which attended not only to the interests of sailing in the U.S., but those in Canada as well. At each Olympics, sailing conducts its own opening and closing ceremonies. Olympic competition itself is unique, often taking place over a course so far offshore that it is difficult if not impossible for observers to see what is going on. At Kingston, "spectators" were kept informed of the progress of each day's racing by watching standings on closed-circuit televisions, a system not at all unlike that of by stock market investors who use the "ticker" to follow current prices. Thus, the joy and satisfaction of the sport are derived almost totally from participation, not observation.

Sailing is commonly considered a "rich man's sport," with such events as the America's Cup and the Newport-Bermuda race offered as gilt-edged examples. To be sure, sailing is not afflicted with the severe financial problems confronting other U.S. amateur sports. With its national network of clubs and associations, the broad support of the sailboat industry, and individual dues and donations, competive sailing has realized a degree of financial self-sufficiency rare in American amateur sports competition. Indeed, the sport has even developed its own foundation to assist competitive sailors in meeting the costs of national and international competition.

Nevertheless, owners and developers of the twelve-meter boats used in the America's Cup, as well as others who compete in such "offshore" events, do not constitute the majority of competitive sailors. Nor are these the competitors who participate in events such as the Olympics. More often than not, Olympic sailors are individuals of more modest means, onetime weekend sailors and owners of small boats whose skills have carried them to the heights of sailing competition. To these competitors, the costs of maintaining their boats, the time and expense necessary to meet exacting international standards, the rates charged for transportation to and from competition sites, and the price of the boats themselves can easily be more than they can afford.

To its credit, the leadership of competitive sailing has recognized these problems and has moved vigorously to address them. In the last two years, significant changes have been made in sailing's governing body, resulting in a structure which many believe to be representative of all aspects of sailing. Furthermore, the sport has for the first time turned to outside sources of funding, requesting in 1975 a grant from the U.S. Olympic Committee to help defray the costs of sending sailors to the Pan American Games.

Events in Olympic Competition

Of the approximately 30 international racing classes, each of which has its own national and world championships, six are included in Olympic competition. Although the number and types of Olympic classes have changed over the years, those which were included in the 1976 Games were:

- Finn, the smallest of the Olympic classes with a crew of one;
- Flying Dutchman, with a crew of two;
- 470, with a crew of two (one of two new classes in the 1976 Olympics);
- Tornado, with a crew of two (also a new class in the 1976 Games);
- Tempest, with a crew of two, and one of the two keel (centerboard) classes; and
- Soling, with a crew of three, also with a keel.

Choosing the classes for the Olympics is a responsibility which international yachting officials, boat manufacturers, and sailors do not take lightly. Generally, those who make these decisions try to select those boats which satisfy the demands of expert sailors but which are not prohibitively expensive to buy and maintain.

Every effort is made also to assure that the standards and specifications of each class are strictly followed by the manufacturer as well as by the competitor, for the chief characteristic of Olympic competition is that success is derived solely from the experience and skill of the competitor, not from the combination of skill and design which characterizes other types of competitive sailing. Accordingly, before the start of Olympic or any class competition, race officials conduct detailed examinations of each boat to assure that international specifications have been met and not exceeded.

International rules require a specific course for Olympic competition. The course is triangular, and the competitor is required to sail three additional legs along one side of the triangle. As with all sailing races, there is a "running" start and much of the strategy of a race comes in crossing the start line as soon as possible after the starter's gun has sounded. In Olympic competition, each class races once a day for seven days. Medals are awarded on a penalty point system, with the winners of each day's competition receiving no points. Final standings are determined by tallying the best six races of each competitor.

History of Olympic Ranking

Generally, the reputation of U.S. sailors in international competition is outstanding, and American performance in the Olympics has been particularly impressive. Since 1900, when the U.S. first participated in the Olympics, American sailors have won 12 Gold Medals, six Silver and ten Bronze.

ORGANIZATION

National Governing Body

The organization recognized as the national governing body for sailing by the International Yacht Racing Union (IYRU) is the U.S. Yacht Racing Union (USYRU), a not-for-profit organization headquartered in Newport, Rhode Island.

Present USYRU membership exceeds 11,000 competitive sailors. In recent years USYRU has undertaken an extensive membership campaign, more than doubling the membership list of a decade ago. USYRU officials estimate, however, that its membership represents only a fraction of all Americans who sail for either leisure or competition.

From 1897 to 1974, both American and Canadian competitive sailing was represented by the North American Yacht Racing Union (NAYRU). With the growth of the separate Canadian Yacht Racing Union (CYRU), U.S. officials decided that the interests of American sailors were best served by creating a new body, USYRU, in 1975. CYRU remains an affiliated member of USYRU, and joint programs, to cut costs for both groups, are envisioned for the future. One such program will be the sharing of "sailing centers," facilities accessible to sailors in all regions of the U.S. and Canada.

USYRU leadership acknowledges that the organization is still in the formative stage. Basically, it is a vertically structured entity in which all aspects of competitive sailing are represented. This structure is a radical departure from that which existed in NAYRU, where most votes were controlled by yacht racing associations (YRAs), whose constituencies are yacht clubs. Although individual membership during those years was encouraged, many competitors felt that their views were not properly reflected or considered at the top levels of leadership. At one point, a substantial number of competitors considered establishing their own organization unless changes were made.

USYRU operates with a more even distribution of voting power and representation. Of the 31 individuals who sit on the Board of Directors nine are elected directly by competitive sailors and eight by the YRAs. Of the remaining Board members, three at-large members and two representing women and youth are selected by a nominating committee, composed of officers and other members of the Board. The five USYRU officers (President, three Vice Presidents, and Secretary/Treasurer, each elected for one year terms) are *ex officio* Board members. Finally, individuals representing USYRU's standing committees (Olympic yachting, intercollegiate yachting, class racing, and YRAs) are appointed to the Board by their respective memberships.

The interests of sailing competitors and YRAs are served directly by "councils," an important innovation in the new structure. These councils represent the various segments of competitive sailing before the USYRU Board and at its semiannual meetings. There are now four councils although more could be added if there were sufficient interest in other categories to warrant their creation. These four are:

- The One Design Class Council, representing "class" sailing, of which Olympic competition is a part;
- The Offshore Council, which represents competitors of non-class sailing, characterized by the Newport-Bermuda race or the America's Cup;
- The Yacht Racing Association Council, composed of the various clubs and YRAs; and
- The Intercollegiate Yacht Racing Association, representing the interests of collegiate sailors, a growing factor and influence in competitive sailing.

The chart on the following page displays USYRU structure.

Other Major Organizations

The "academic arm" of USYRU is the Intercollegiate Yacht Racing Association (ICYRA), which, since 1928, has helped more than 300 colleges and universities in the U.S. and Canada to develop competitive sailing at the varsity or club level. Indeed, intercollegiate sailing has become an increasingly important factor in the continued international success of U.S. sailors.

The rise of young American sailors is shown by the fact that in 1972 the median age of the U.S. Olympic sailing team was 34. At the 1976 Games, the median age was 24.

Recently, another intercollegiate group, the Eastern Collegiate Athletic Conference (ECAC), has become involved with sailing. Concerned by apparent infractions of amateur rules committed by member institutions, ECAC decided to include sailing as one of the sports which comes under its rules and regulations.

Most, if not all, ECAC member institutions which conduct sailing at the varsity level are also ICYRA members. However, ECAC is not a member of USYRU and is not, therefore, obliged to abide by international rules of competition and eligibility. At the same time, ECAC is affiliated with the NCAA, which has no connection with either USYRU or ICYRA. This lack of unity has led to the adoption of sometimes conflicting rules and regulations.

An example of such a conflict took place recently at the U.S. Naval Academy where a senior midshipman and an experienced sailor were denied the opportunity to compete for the Navy team. Under ICYRA rules of eligibility, a competitor is given five calendar years (measured from his first season of intercollegiate competition), during which he may sail for his college or university team for eight, non-consecutive semesters. Under ECAC/NCAA rules, a competitor is given five calendar years of eligibility for any sport, measured from the date he first entered a college or university. A student need not be actively involved in a sport for purposes of determining eligibility under this rule.

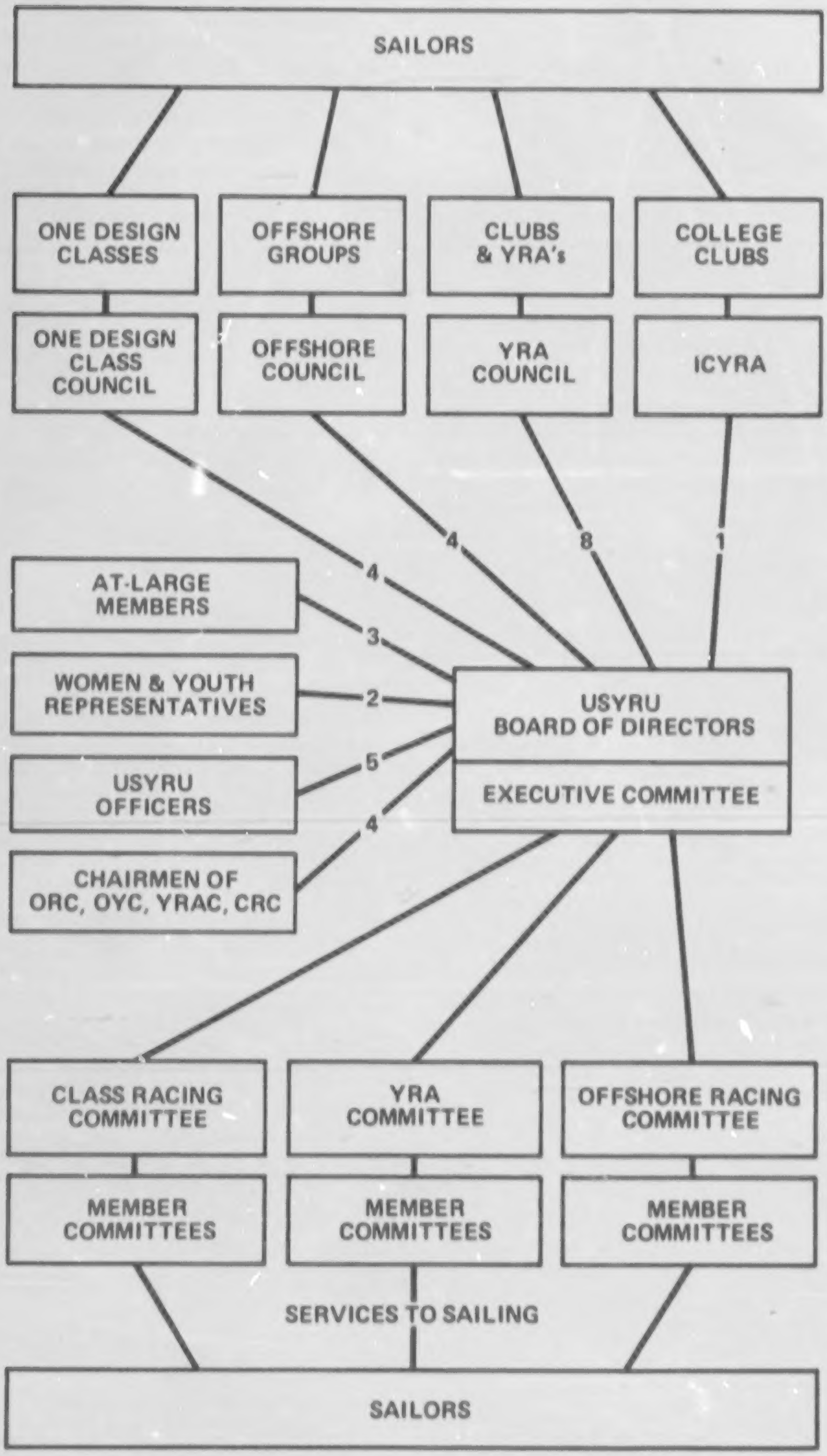
The midshipman in question attended two other colleges for two and a half years prior to his admission to the Naval Academy. He did not participate in any sport on an intercollegiate basis. Under ECAC/NCAA rule, he was eligible for only two and a half years of intercollegiate sailing at the Naval Academy. Under ICYRA rule, however, he was eligible to sail competitively for all four years at the Naval Academy because he had not participated in intercollegiate sailing at any of the other universities he had attended previously.

Efforts are being made to obtain a waiver to enable this athlete to compete in his final year at Annapolis, and both USYRU and ECAC officials acknowledge that such unintended and uneven applications of eligibility rules should be corrected.

Relationship with International Federation

USYRU enjoys a close and influential relationship with IYRU, partly because of the success of U.S. sailors in international competition. Over the years, USYRU also has been the international leader in developing the International Offshore Racing rule (IOR), the body of standards and procedures utilized in all non-class racing. IOR is administered

THE USYRU ORGANIZATION


SAILORS
ONE DESIGN CLASSES
OFFSHORE GROUPS
CLUBS & YRA's
COLLEGE CLUBS
ONE DESIGN CLASS COUNCIL
OFFSHORE COUNCIL
YRA COUNCIL
ICYRA
4
4
8
1
AT-LARGE MEMBERS
3
WOMEN & YOUTH REPRESENTATIVES
2
USYRU OFFICERS
5
CHAIRMEN OF ORC, OYC, YRAC, CRC
4
USYRU BOARD OF DIRECTORS
EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
CLASS RACING COMMITTEE
YRA COMMITTEE
OFFSHORE RACING COMMITTEE
MEMBER COMMITTEES
MEMBER COMMITTEES
MEMBER COMMITTEES
SERVICES TO SAILING
SAILORS

by IYRU for all international competitions, such as the America's Cup, involving big non-class boats.

RESOURCES

Personnel

USYRU employs a full-time professional staff consisting of the Executive Counsellor, who serves (without vote) on the Executive Committee of the Board of Directors; a Director of Class Racing, a Director of Offshore Racing, a Director of Promotional Services, and a clerical staff of four.

The number of coaches and instructors active in competitive sailing is not known. However, USYRU officials estimate that approximately 5,000 instructors participate in programs of training and competition each summer, primarily at the junior level. Additionally, there are some 250 coaches at colleges and universities which conduct competitive sailing programs.

USYRU spokesman estimate that the number of officials in competitive sailing is 10,000, with most having attained that position as chairmen of their yacht club's racing committee. However, qualification standards are not uniform and are often lax, and few of these officials are qualified to administer major national or international competitions. USYRU has been considering the adoption of more stringent, national qualification procedures for its officials as a means of correcting this deficiency.

Finance/Funding

In 1975, USYRU's total income was more than $437,000, of which slightly less than 50% came from dues paid by individuals and member organizations. Disbursements for 1975 included $74,260 for salaries and $53,112 for general administration of the organization. The financial report for this period follows on next page.

The report does not include expenses incurred by USYRU to send competitors to national and international events. These costs are funneled through the U.S. International Sailing Association (USISA), a non-profit foundation created by USYRU in 1958. For many years, individual donations from, and fund raising events within the sailing community were enough to meet the costs of transportation and lodging for competitors and equipment to events. However, in 1975, USISA was unable to meet expenses incurred by the U.S. team at the Pan American Games. Consequently, USYRU requested and received its first grant from the USOC.

The dropoff in USISA income in 1975 was attributed to national economic conditions of the time. However, it is now clear to USYRU that USISA cannot continue to be the sole support of national and international competitive sailing. The high cost of sending individuals to these events has always been a unique problem to sailing, largely because of fees charged for transportation of boats and other necessary equipment. Costs incurred for the 1972 Olympics, for example, were $70,000. Those which will be incurred to send a team to the 1980 Olympics, while not presently known, are likely to be beyond what USISA will be able to generate in the next four years if it continues to meet its obligations in other areas of competition.

Facilities/Equipment

Existing facilities for competitive sailing are adequate to meet demand. Most areas of the country have lakes, rivers, or oceans nearby and many local governments have established docking or unloading areas for boating enthusiasts. Additionally, the 1800 clubs which are USYRU members often provide facilities for storage or docking of boats. Finally, most colleges and universities with sailing programs provide competitors with boats, docks, and storage facilities.

What is needed is a series of regionally located, national training centers, equipped with boats and accessories, lodging, and a full-time complement of coaches and support personnel. These centers, if adequately funded, could provide the kind of training facilities and head-to-head competition now prevalent in Europe and could also add momentum to continued U.S. success in international competition.

The total cost of establishing three Regional Centers, one each in the Eastern, Midwestern and Western areas of the country, would be $375,000 each. Developing an instructor program at each of the three sites would cost $25,000, while maintenance costs for each would come to $100,000 annually.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

As outlined above, the 11,000 USYRU members are only a small portion of the competitive sailors in the U.S. Precise figures do not exist on how many sailors there are, but USYRU estimates that some 90,000 skippers participate in competitive sailing events at least once a year. For the past two years, USYRU has been conducting an intensive membership campaign designed to extend its services to as many of these sailors as possible.

Athlete Development

In addition to helping competitive sailing at the intercollegiate level, USYRU conducts a youth development program, culminating in an annual Youth and Junior Championships. Winners of these races are sent to international championships. Competitive sailing is one of the few sports where experience, and not age, is the only real factor in achieving success. Thus, the young often can compete against their elders on an equal basis.

Quite often, manufacturers of sailboats and sailing equipment urge their employees to participate actively in competition as a means of advertising their product. While USYRU officials shy away from the use of the word "professional" in defining these competitors, it is nonetheless true that many of them spend much of their time preparing for and participating in major national and international events, often at their employers' expense.

Training of Officials

Many in competitive sailing acknowledge that there is a need to train more competent officials to administer sailing events. Most local, regional, and sometimes national events must depend on individuals who are experienced in sailing, but know little about judging or officiating.

USYRU officials estimate that the cost of a national training and certification program for officials would be $200,000. While USYRU is in favor of establishing such a program, present resources are insufficient.

UNITED STATES YACHT RACING UNION, INC.*
FINANCIAL REPORT FOR THE PERIOD
1 January 1975 to 31 December 1975

	Non-Offshore	Offshore[a]	Total
BALANCE CASH ON HAND— 1 January 1975	$ 69,339.75		$ 69,389.75
RECEIPTS			
Membership Dues	$207,589.12[b]		$207,589.12
Sales-Publications	31,996.33	$ 6,052.75	38,049.08
Certificates Processed		84,108.36	84,108.36
Services to Affiliates	31,679.63		31.679.63
Interest Income	3,655.41		3,655.41
Annual Meeting 1975	653.00		653.00
Annual Meeting 1976	700.00		700.00
Championships 1974	135.10		135.10
Championships 1975	1,018.02		1,018.02
Miscellaneous	209.76	325.00	534.76
	$347,022.12	$ 90,486.11	$437,512.23
DISBURSEMENTS			
Salaries	$ 34,641.79	$ 39,618.28	$ 74,260.07
Payroll Taxes	33,533.09	12,507.07	46,040.68
General & Administrative	33,079.31	20,032.81	53,112.12
Certificate Processing		38,378.56	38,378.56
Sales	19,193.40	3,690.75	22,884.15
Non-Sales	55,814.80		55,814.80
Dues, Travel & Conferences	13,019.70	13,021.14	26,040.84
Services to Affiliates	31,857.34[c]		31,857.34
Annual Meeting 1975	2,590.07		2,590.07
Championships	10,746.12	122.94	10,869.06
Medical/Insurance	1,606.66	1,291.86	2,898.52
Miscellaneous	27.50	95.00	122.50
	$236,109.78	$128,758.91	$364,868.69
BALANCE CASH BALANCE— 31 December 1975			$ 72,643.54[d]

[a] Trans-oceanic point-to-point competitions

[b] $33,880.00 represents 1976 dues paid in December, 1975

[c] Includes $13,904.30 of obligations incurred in 1974 and paid in 1975.

[d] $52,273.92 deposited in Savings Accounts.
Receivables outstanding approximate $19,000.00

*Source — USYRU Yearbook, 1976.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In general, competitive sailing has demonstrated that given proper resources, national governing bodies are capable of performing well in service to their athletes. That the leadership of the sport was able to recognize the need to restructure its organization along more representative lines exemplifies USYRU's continuing efforts to extend its help to all who wish to sail competitively. There is, however, some progress still to be made, especially with regard to college eligibility rules.

This country has a strong sailing tradition no longer confined to our coastlines; it exists as strongly in the nation's heartland as it does along the New England coast. Its popularity—particularly among individuals and organizations able to contribute generously to the sport—has been of tremendous importance in developing a coordinated effort to train athletes for national and international competition.

Nevertheless, the experience of the last few years has demonstrated that sailing is no longer immune to financial dislocation. In the future, the sport must look beyond its traditional sources to help send competitors to such events as the Olympics and Pan American Games. Increased funding is essential if sailing is to continue to meet its financial obligations and keep abreast of the ever-improving caliber of international competition.

B. MULTI-SPORT ORGANIZATIONS

THE AMATER ATHLETIC UNION OF THE USA

OVERVIEW

When referring to the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) it is necessary to clarify which aspect of the organization is under discussion: the Union has many levels – club, association, regional, and national; and two major functions – as an umbrella service organization and as a national governing body (NGB) in several sports.

As the national governing body for eight Olympic sports, the AAU is unique in that no other NGB in the world is recognized by more than one international sport federation. The AAU holds the franchise for aquatics (diving, swimming, water polo),[1] athletics (track and field), bobsled, boxing, judo, luge, weightlifting, and wrestling. In addition, the AAU conducts programs in ten other sports (in many for both men and women): basketball, baton twirling, gymnastics, handball,[2] horseshoe pitching, karate,[2] synchronized swimming,[2] taekwondo,[2] trampoline and tumbling,[2] and volleyball.

The AAU is a union of more than 7,000 local sports clubs, organized into 58 associations, which in turn are organized into 15 regions. At all levels – club, association, region – individuals volunteer their time to coach, to referee, to sponsor specific competitions, exhibitions or trips, and to carry out the administrative duties that come with being a representative or delegate to the national AAU. There are some 300,000 of these volunteers. The value of their time and contributions to U. S. amateur sports does not show up on any AAU financial statements.

The administration of each of the Olympic sports for which the AAU is the NGB is discussed in the individual sport reports in this volume. This chapter focuses on the Union at the national level, the structure and operations of the AAU umbrella organization, and the functional relation of that organization to the individual sports committees.

ORGANIZATION

History

The AAU was organized in 1888 to establish rules for amateur sports in the U. S. and to protect amateur athletes from professionalism. At the turn of the century the AAU was instrumental in rescuing amateur sport from the exploitation of gamblers and fixers. It has provided opportunities for millions of athletes, and the majority of the volunteers who make it up have worked selflessly to promote sport within the amateur framework. In the years before intercollegiate sports became big business, it almost singlehandedly kept the United States active in international competition. It obtained its international sanctions in sports such as track and field, swimming, basketball, and wrestling when no one else wanted the responsibility. Its methods and philosophies appear to have served the sports well.

The AAU's role today continues to be much the same as it was when the Union was established. Objectives of the AAU as published in the AAU Code, 1976, are:

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[1] While these are separate events on the Olympic calendar, there is only one international federation for all aquatic events and, thus, only one international franchise.

[2] Non-Olympic sports in which the AAU is recognized internationally as the U. S. governing body.

– To encourage systematic exercise in the U. S.;

– To improve and promote sport among those who engage in it solely for pleasure and physical, mental or social benefit;

– To establish alliances with other organizations devoted wholly or in part to physical culture;

– To establish and maintain a uniform test of amateur standing, and uniform rules for the government of all athletic sports within its jurisdiction;

– To conduct amateur athletic championships;

– To promote playgrounds, gymnasia, swimming pools, and fields for amateur sport in the U. S.; and

– To institute a Bureau of Records for all branches of amateur sport in the U. S.

Membership

Individual Members

Athletic members are active amateur competitors, registered with associations so as to be eligible for AAU competition. They pay dues when joining an association. Dues vary among associations, ranging from $2.00 to $3.50 per association. Part of each registration fee ($1.50) is sent to AAU National headquarters. *Sustaining members* are individuals interested in the purpose and programs of the AAU, who pay dues of $15. They receive a membership card, the *AAU News* and the Amateur Athlete Yearbook, and may attend the annual meetings. *Associate sustaining members* are individuals who volunteer their time coaching or otherwise working for the AAU. They are usually parents or other persons interested in the purposes and programs of the AAU. They receive a membership card and may attend the annual meetings. *Life members* are those who contribute $100 or more to the AAU. *Perpetual members* are those who contribute $1,000 or more. Life and perpetual members are entitled to attend the annual meetings and to receive the *AAU News* and the Amateur Athlete Yearbook.

Records at AAU headquarters show approximately 332,000 athletes registered for the year ending December 31, 1975. The table following illustrates a breakdown of athletes per sport as of December 31, 1975. Upon registration, an athlete is required to indicate his or her primary sport; these are generally the sports under which the athlete is listed in the table, although he or she may also participate or compete in other sports.

The number of athletes registered in AAU clubs is not precise because:

– Many clubs do not report complete registration figures or push for registrations among regional athletes;

– There is no verification by the AAU office or the Registration Committee of the local associations' and clubs' registration procedures; and

– AAU membership records are kept only by the insurance offices.

Eighty-five percent of registered AAU members indicate their primary sport to be an AAU-governed Olympic sport. Thirty-five percent of AAU registrants are women.

Organization Members

Association members are the 58 recognized district associations. Each association is composed of eligible amateur athletic clubs, organizations, groups or individuals within a geographic area. *Allied members* are organizations composed of clubs or other bodies of individual

AAU Athlete Registrations*
Supplied by Associations
December 31, 1975

Sport	*Men*	*Women*	*Total*
AAU-Governed Olympic Sports:			
Bobsled	113	3	116
Boxing	11,405	7	11,412
Judo	18,422	3,790	22,212
Luge	30	6	36
Swimming†	78,695	78,391	157,086
Diving	2,397	2,350	4,747
Water Polo	2,649	171	2,820
Track and Field	50,048	21,203	71,257
Weightlifting	8,128	35	8,163
Wrestling	30,906	32	30,938
Total	202,793	105,988	308,781
Olympic Sports Governed by Other Organizations			
Basketball	7,020	2,494	9,523
Gymnastics	1,045	5,212	6,257
Volleyball	151	441	592
Total	8,225	8,147	16,372
Non-Olympic Sports With AAU Programs			
Baton Twirling	6	902	908
Horse Shoe Pitching	120	4	124
Handball	174	1	175
Karate	2,937	561	3,498
Tae Kwon Do	755	147	902
Trampoline/Tumbling	295	694	989
Total	4,287	2,309	6,596
Grand Total	215,305	116,444	331,749

*These figures include only those athlete members who both registered and signed up for AAU insurance coverage.
†Includes Long Distance and Synchronized.

members devoted to physical culture and who have entered into alliance with the AAU. *Armed Forces members* are the U. S. Army, U. S. Navy, U. S. Air Force, and U. S. Marine Corps. *Business members* consist of companies and any organizations in the U. S. interested in supporting the development and growth of amateur athletics. *Affiliated association members* in foreign countries are associations of eight or more clubs composed of American citizens. An affiliated association member conducts closed competition among its membership.

Structure of the AAU

The national AAU is organized as a not-for-profit corporation under the laws of the State of New York for the purposes of education, promotion and sponsorship of amateur athletes and amateur athletic events in the U. S. The AAU qualifies as a Section 501 (c) (3) corporation under the Internal Revenue Code and as such enjoys an exemption from federal, state and local taxes. Its headquarters are located in Indianapolis, Indiana. As a corporation, the duties of its officers and their terms of office are provided for in the by-laws. Its national officers include a president, two vice presidents, a treasurer, and a secretary.

The following table shows how the United States and affiliated countries have been divided into 15 geographically determined Regions. Each Region encompasses from one to seven associations. Organization Chart I presents a graphic description of the overall AAU structural network.

Clubs

At the most local level are the AAU affiliated clubs. These are generally multi-sport clubs, administered by volunteers and offering programs and competitive opportunities in a variety of sports. AAU clubs often do not own their own facilities but use school, YMCA, or recreation department facilities on a rental basis.

The backbone, and one of the most significant assets, of the AAU club system is its large group of volunteers. These individuals are athletes, parents of athletes, retired athletes, coaches and sports enthusiasts from local communities who carry out the important function of organizing the local, regional and national competitions that are the heartbeat of the AAU. They also supervise and officiate at the competitions, staff concessions and entrance gates, and arrange appropriate training and temporary living quarters for officials, athletes and guests.

AAU clubs are composed of individuals who form groups such as coaches organizations, officials organizations, sports clubs, colleges, high schools, service clubs, YMCAs, parks departments, municipal governments and religious organizations. These clubs promote or participate in amateur sports programs or games.

Club representatives make up the Board of Managers of each association. An association's board of managers selects associate delegates to the AAU annual convention.

Through its network of associations and clubs the AAU has generated tremendous enthusiasm for its sports and athletes. Volunteers learn to officiate AAU sports through on the job training at AAU events and through reading AAU rule books. These local organizations consist of hard working, dedicated athletes and volunteers who form the nucleus of U. S. sports.

Associations

The associations are the 58 geographic clusters of clubs that implement the rules and regulations of the AAU. The structure of each association basically reflects that of the national AAU organization. Each association has its own constitution although the national AAU recommends that certain provisions be included in these constitutions and by-laws.

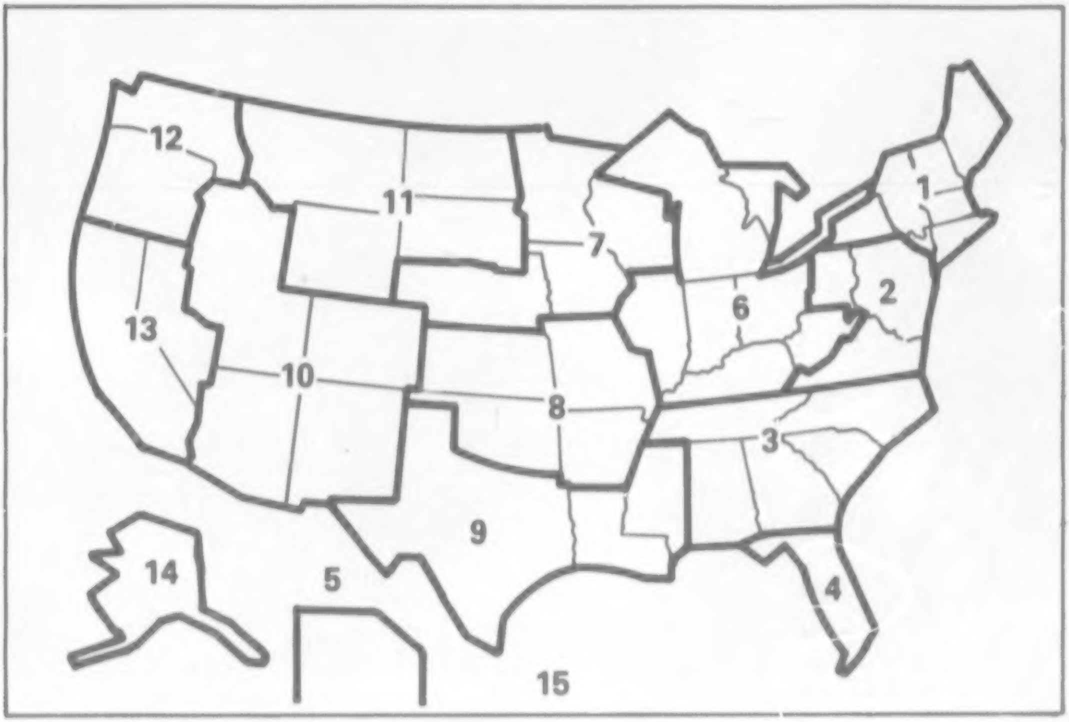
The Board of Managers is responsible for the conduct of affairs for each association. Managers are appointed by the members of the association and hold office for one year. Only members of the board of managers are eligible to hold office in an association and to be elected as delegates to the AAU Board of Governors. An association board of managers consists of representatives from business, past presidents and secretaries of the association, club representatives (the number of which is a function of the number of clubs and number of athletes), members-at-large and allied representatives and armed forces.

The largest association is the Pacific AAU Association, which has 31,355 registered athletes (as of December 31, 1976) and over 500 member clubs. At present, only three of the 58 AAU Associations have office space and paid staff. Michigan AAU Association has had paid staff for several years, while the Niagara and Potomac Valley AAU Associations have recently acquired office space and salaried administrators. The other 55 Associations are run by volunteers, primarily out of their homes.

Association members are both clubs and individuals. Individual association members, whose interests and activities are primarily directed toward one sport, elect a chairman for that sport to serve at the association level.

EXHIBIT I

THE GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF THE AAU ASSOCIATIONS AND REGIONS

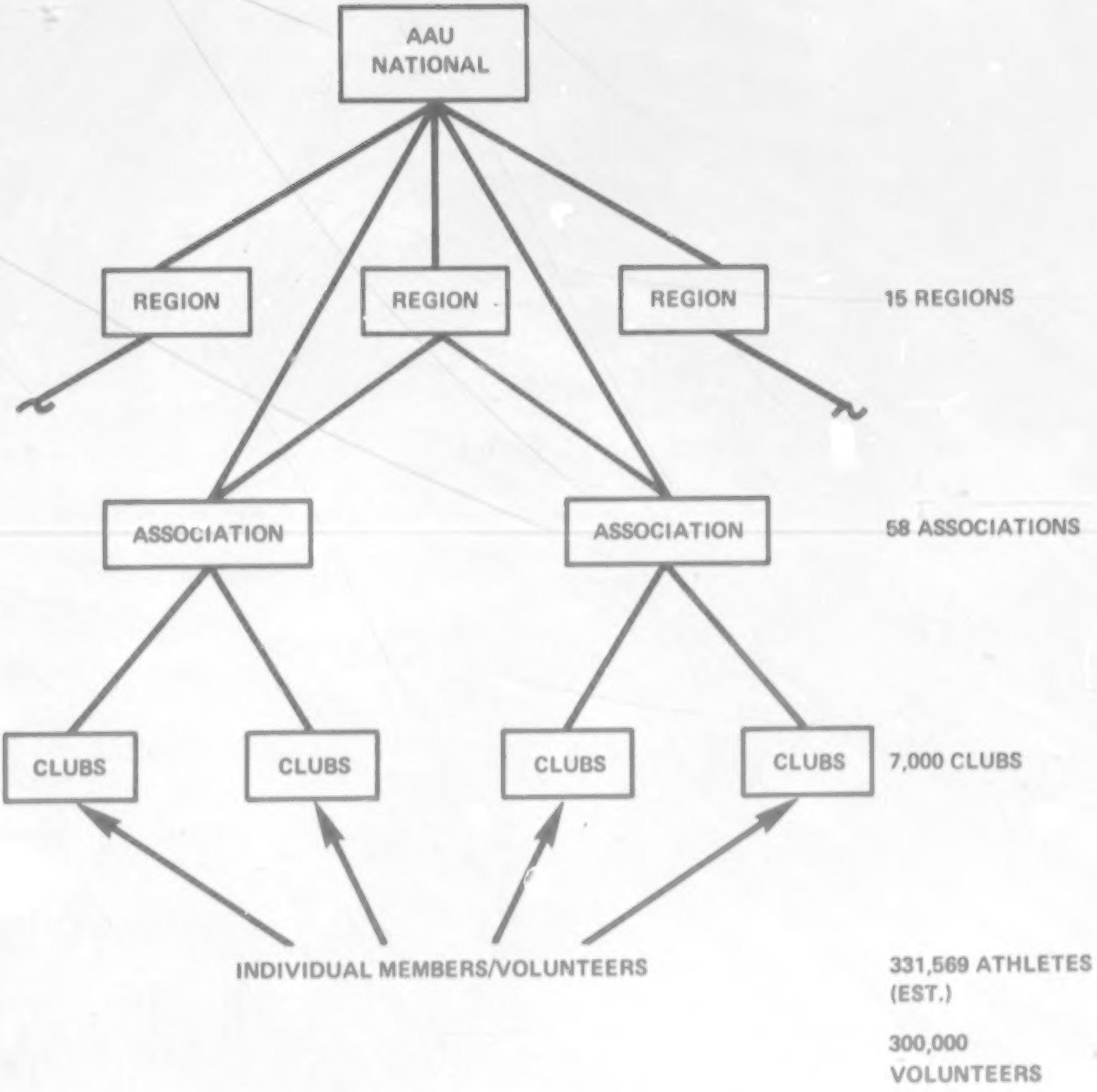


REGIONS BY ASSOCIATIONS

REGION 1	MAINE, NEW ENGLAND, ADIRONDACK, NIAGRA, CONNECTICUT, METROPOLITAN, NEW JERSEY
REGION 2	MIDDLE ATLANTIC, SOUTH ATLANTIC, POTOMAC VALLEY, ALLEGHENY MOUNTAIN, VIRGINIA
REGION 3	NORTH CAROLINA, SOUTH CAROLINA, GEORGIA, SOUTHEASTERN
REGION 4	FLORIDA, FLORIDA GOLD COAST
REGION 5	HAWAII
REGION 6	CENTRAL, INDIANA, OHIO, KENTUCKY, LAKE ERIE, MICHIGAN, WEST VIRGINIA
REGION 7	WISCONSIN, MINNESOTA, MIDWESTERN, IOWA
REGION 8	MISSOURI VALLEY, OZARK, OKLAHOMA, ARKANSAS
REGION 9	GULF, SOUTHWESTERN, SOUTH TEXAS, WEST TEXAS, SOUTHERN
REGION 10	INTERMOUNTAIN, ROCKY MOUNTAIN, NEW MEXICO, ARIZONA, BORDER
REGION 11	NORTH DAKOTA, SOUTH DAKOTA, MONTANA, WYOMING
REGION 12	INLAND EMPIRE, OREGON, PACIFIC NORTHWEST
REGION 13	PACIFIC, SOUTHERN PACIFIC, CENTRAL CALIFORNIA, PACIFIC SOUTHWEST, SOUTHERN NEVADA
REGION 14	ALASKA
REGION 15	FAR EAST

ORGANIZATION CHART I

OVERALL AAU STRUCTURAL NETWORK


AAU NATIONAL
REGION
REGION
REGION
15 REGIONS
ASSOCIATION
ASSOCIATION
58 ASSOCIATIONS
CLUBS
CLUBS
CLUBS
CLUBS
7,000 CLUBS
INDIVIDUAL MEMBERS/VOLUNTEERS
331,569 ATHLETES (EST.)
300,000 VOLUNTEERS

Regions

The AAU has divided the U. S. into 15 geographic regions, each of which encompasses the AAU associations in that area. The most significant use the AAU makes of the regions is for Junior Olympic purposes. The Junior Olympic Program includes 13 regional representatives (in the 13 continental U. S. regions) who are paid to coordinate Junior Olympic sports at individual associations within their regions and to manage the regional championships. There is no administrative hierarchy at the regional level—either for individual sports or for general administration—such as exists at both the association and national levels.

National

The AAU national organization consists of officers, a Board of Governors, a Board of Directors, an Executive Committee, Sports Supervising Committees, other AAU National Committees, and AAU Headquarters staff.

Officers. The President and first and second Vice Presidents serve two-year terms. They are elected in even-numbered years and traditionally succeed each other in sequence at each reelection. The Secretary and Treasurer serve four-year terms and are elected in the Olympic year. Three Trustees, who hold, manage, sell and invest AAU funds, serve three-year terms and annually select a chairman from among their number.

Board of Governors. The Board of Governors is the group of individuals ultimately responsible for AAU operations and policy. It has the power, provided two-thirds of the members voting concur, to admit an eligible organization to association or allied membership in the AAU, to remove from office on 15 days written notice any member of the Board of Governors, to overrule an action of a sports supervising committee or an AAU sports association, to establish policy and to direct the activities of the national office staff.

The Board of Governors may remove any suspension or remit any penalty, pertaining to any person or organization, wherever that may be done in accordance with the AAU Code. Other responsibilities include overseeing the collection and expenditure of dues, imposing and enforcing penalties for violation of the AAU Code, calling special AAU membership meetings, overseeing national championships and appointing the number of representatives to which it is entitled on the Board of Directors of the U. S. Olympic Committee (USOC).[3]

The Board of Governors in 1975-76 was composed of approximately 2,500 people. Voting membership on the Board of Governors is categorized as follows:

- Sports supervising committees. 500 delegates represent all the sport supervising committees; the number of representatives per committee is based on the number and percentage of dues paying registered athletes;
- AAU associations. Number of representatives per association is based on 1) number of member clubs on a sliding scale basis and 2) number of member athletes on a sliding scale basis;
- Allied members. Number of representatives is 1) equal to the total numbers of that allied member's representatives on sports supervising committees and 2) not less than one nor greater than 50;
- Ex-presidents and ex-secretaries of AAU (one representative each); and
- Members-at-large. Up to 20 representatives may be appointed by the AAU President, with the advice and consent of the Board of Governors, from the membership of the associations, allied members, and/or armed forces.

Each of the above representatives has one vote, with the exception of the members-at-large who collectively have one vote. This mixed group, from various sport and organizational backgrounds, makes final decisions on policies, rules and regulations affecting all sports under the AAU umbrella. As is discussed in more depth under the section on *Sports Supervising Committees*, the Board of Governors may not be knowledgeable or particularly well qualified to be making decisions for all sports.

The Board of Governors, as the highest decision-making body in the AAU, can overrule the decisions or recommendations of the sports supervising committees. For instance in the sport of weightlifting the Board after several rejections, finally agreed to accept the recommendation of the weightlifting committee in 1976 to become three separate organizations: Olympic Weightlifting, Olympic Style Powerlifting and Physique. Each of the three weightlifting divisions reports to a separate international federation and the three are, to weightlifters, mutually independent disciplines. It took the AAU Board of Governors some years to recognize this fact.

In 1975 swimming presented to the Board a proposal for the Competitive Swimming Committee to hire its own administrator. It took considerable lobbying by the swimmers to persuade the Board to accept this recommendation, which was finally implemented in 1976.

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[3] Effective 1977, the sports supervising committees will elect their own representatives to the USOC bi-annual meeting.

In judo the Board of Directors established an Allied Member Review Board to analyze the dispute between the U. S. Judo Association (USJA) and the U. S. Judo Federation (USJF). USJF, an allied member of the AAU, controls the AAU Judo Committee, the group that handles belt rankings and certification of officials. In 1975 the Board of Governors and the AAU Judo Committee voted overwhelmingly to reject the recommendation of both the Board of Directors and the Review Board to admit USJA as an allied member of the AAU. At the 1976 Convention, however, the Board of Governors voted to accept the recommendation of the Board of Directors to admit the USJA as an allied member of the AAU, thus reversing itself in the space of two years.

Board of Directors. Between meetings of the Board of Governors, the Board of Directors of the AAU acts on all matters except amending the AAU Code. Its decisions are subject to approval of the Board of Governors. The Board of Directors also has prior approval of all arrangements for international competition made by sport supervising committees.

In 1976 the Board of Directors was composed of approximately 160 persons. This group meets at least twice a year—once at the Annual Convention and again at a mid-year meeting. A quorum consists of at least one-third of the voting members, including at least 15 association representatives. The Executive Director, General Counsel and the three Trustees are non-voting members.

Members of the Board of Directors include the President, the Vice Presidents, Secretary, Treasurer, Executive Director, the three Trustees of the Union and the General Counsel. In addition there is one representative from each association (other than the officials named above), one from each branch of the Armed Forces, one from each national organization allied with the AAU and sponsoring a national program in at least two sports under AAU jurisdiction, and one athlete representative from each AAU sport supervising committee. Five representatives from the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA)[4] and five representatives from the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) are nominated to the Board by the AAU President, with advice and consent of the Board of Governors.

Also members of the board are the chairmen of the sport supervising committees and of the following standing committees: Finance, Insurance, Law and Legislation, Marketing, Junior Olympic, Physical Fitness, Public Relations, Publications, Registration, Survey and T.V., Radio and Motion Picture. Finally, 12 at-large members representing the general public and business and Past Presidents and Secretaries also sit on the board.

Executive Committee. The Executive Committee acts on behalf of the Board of Directors and the Board of Governors between meetings, subject to the approval of those boards, on all matters except amending the AAU Code. It must approve all arrangements made by sports supervising committees for international competition, including financial commitments.

The Executive Committee consists of:

- The President, the Vice Presidents, Secretary, and Treasurer;
- Four Zone[5] Representatives;
- One representative from each of the following sports: track and field, long distance running, race walking, competitive swimming, diving, water polo, wrestling, boxing, weightlifting, luge, bobsled, judo, synchronized swimming, trampoline and tumbling, karate, taekwondo, basketball, gymnastics, and volleyball;
- Four athlete representatives;
- Past Presidents of the Union;
- The Chairmen of the Registration, General Junior Olympic, and Law and Legislation Committees; and
- As non-voting members, the General Counsel, the Executive Director and the Public Relations Chairman.

Sports Supervising Committees. The AAU has a standing supervising committee for each sport over which it claims jurisdiction and for other sports in which it conducts national programs. Sports supervising committees oversee the conduct of their sports in the U. S. and establish the procedures by which the sport is conducted in each association and region. Each committee is made up largely of representatives from the 58 associations, representatives from allied national organizations, at-large members, the armed forces and athlete representatives.

Each sport supervising committee is responsible for its internal organization. The chairman, elected at the annual meeting of that sports committee, appoints all sub-committee heads

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[4] Since 1965, the NCAA has not sent official representatives.

[5] A zone is composed of several regions for purposes of representation on the Executive Committee.

(except in swimming, where the administrative, age group/Junior Olympic, and seniors subcommittees elect their own chairmen.)

Each sport supervising committee has jurisdiction over national, regional and sectional championships in its sport. The committee is responsible for locating championship sites, selecting athletes and coaches for international competitions, making rules, establishing budgets and programs, and determining which organizations are represented on their committees. It may award the national championships for up to three years in advance, may reject entries for cause and may make allotment of funds for athletes' expenses.

It also elects representatives to international sports governing bodies for a four-year period (the number of representatives varies from sport to sport), handles all international matters for the sport, and nominates its representatives to the USOC. With the approval of the Board of Governors, the committees can be expanded to accommodate any organization.

After 1976 functions previously performed by the USOC Games Committees – preparing, selecting and training the Pan American and Olympic teams – will be assumed by each sports supervising committee. These committees should be representative of organizations active in the sport. The composition of the committees and selection of individuals to serve on the committees has been left by the AAU to each sports supervising committee.

Organization Chart II shows a typical national sports supervising committee. Each of the 58 AAU associations has its own sports supervising committee and can be regarded as a miniature of the national committee. At the national level, activities of sports supervising committees are supported or supplemented by full or part-time AAU sports administrators.

By a two-thirds vote of the Board of Governors, any action of a sports supervising committee can be overruled (except the award of national championships or amendments to technical rules of competition). The Board of Directors also has the power, during the interval between annual meetings, to overturn AAU sports committee decisions. A December 1975 news release and letter signed by the AAU President stated that as a practical matter, the sports supervising committees constitute about 67% of the vote of both the Board of Governors and the Board of Directors. However, although the sports committee representatives may have over 50% of the vote on the Board of Governors (this is not true of the Board of Directors), these individuals represent many sports and do not necessarily vote as a bloc or share similar philosophies.

One dependable source of income for sport committees is registration fees. Every registered athlete pays a registration fee to his/her local club; $1.50 goes into the national AAU budget, fifty cents to the committee for the sport listed as the athlete's primary sport, and the rest stays with the local association. Some sport committees have one or more "patrons" who contribute large sums of money or services to that committee's budget.

While the national AAU office does not like to be in the position of continually lending money to sports committees to cover their deficits, AAU National traditionally has loaned money to committees in need. For example, the wrestling committee had a deficit of $34,000 in 1974, which was covered by a loan from the national office and repaid the following year.

Other National AAU Committees. In addition to sports supervising committees, there are 33 administrative committees, covering such areas as specific awards; membership and registration; television, radio and motion pictures; sports medicine; public relations; marketing; fitness; recreation; Olympic development; insurance; finance; uniforms; international advisory; and law and legislation. The AAU President appoints the chairmen and members of these committees, with nominations for representatives from member organizations submitted by those organizations.

There are also Junior Olympics (J.O.) Committees at the national AAU level, both an overall J.O. committee and a committee for each sport with a J.O. program.

Annual Meeting

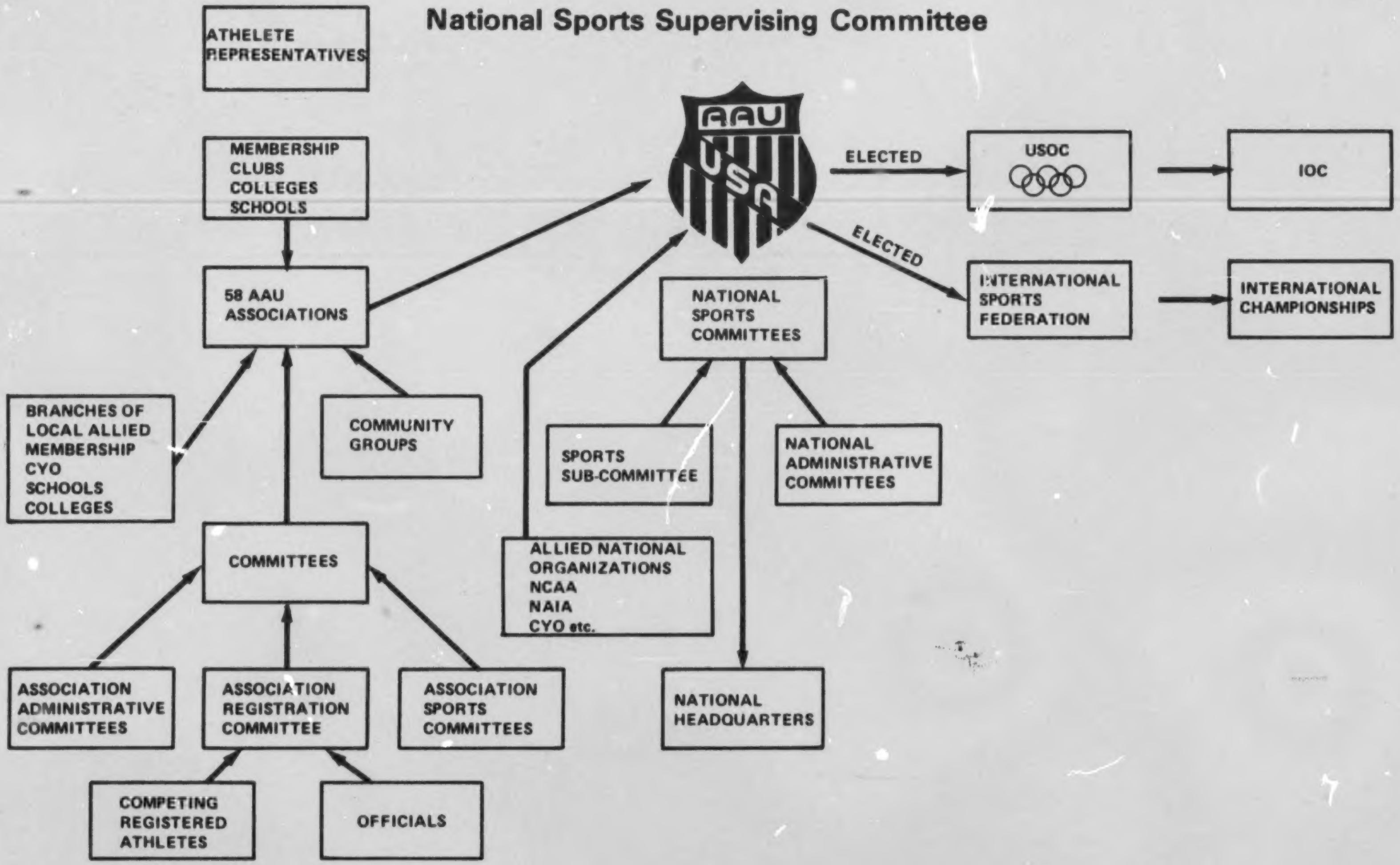
The AAU Annual Convention is held in the Fall. All AAU associations are eligible to send delegates. A quorum is defined as 50% of the association representatives. During the convention, most sports supervising committees hold their meetings and elections. Annual reports on all AAU activities are presented; rules and amendments are presented, discussed and voted on; and elections of national officers are conducted.

National AAU Headquarters Staff

The AAU Headquarters staff is located in Indianapolis, Indiana. An Executive Director oversees the national AAU operation with the aid of six sport administrators (two of whom, for gymnastics and boxing, are part-time and reside in their home-towns). Other members of the

ORGANIZATION CHART II

HOW NATIONAL SPORTS SUPERVISING COMMITTEES ARE ORGANIZED


National Sports Supervising Committee
ATHELETE REPRESENTATIVES
MEMBERSHIP CLUBS COLLEGES SCHOOLS
58 AAU ASSOCIATIONS
AAU USA
ELECTED
USOC
IOC
ELECTED
INTERNATIONAL SPORTS FEDERATION
INTERNATIONAL CHAMPIONSHIPS
NATIONAL SPORTS COMMITTEES
BRANCHES OF LOCAL ALLIED MEMBERSHIP CYO SCHOOLS COLLEGES
COMMUNITY GROUPS
SPORTS SUB-COMMITTEE
NATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE COMMITTEES
COMMITTEES
ALLIED NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS NCAA NAIA CYO etc.
ASSOCIATION ADMINISTRATIVE COMMITTEES
ASSOCIATION REGISTRATION COMMITTEE
ASSOCIATION SPORTS COMMITTEES
NATIONAL HEADQUARTERS
COMPETING REGISTERED ATHLETES
OFFICIALS

headquarters staff are a Junior Olympics Administrator; directors for sports development, publicity and associate publicity; a business office manager; and insurance administrator; and a special assistant to the Executive Director.

Executive Director

The Executive Director is elected by the Board of Directors at its mid-year meeting after receiving recommendations from the personnel committee. The Executive Director generally serves a four-year term and is the chief administrator under the direction of the President, Board of Governors, Board of Directors and Executive Committee. Contrary to some interpretations the Commission received in interviews, neither the Executive Director nor sports administrators, according to the AAU Code, can make official commitments for international competition without the prior approval of the appropriate sports supervising committee or its designee. However, primary negotiation of such matters, may be delegated to a sport administrator by the sport supervisory committees.

Sports Administrators

As shown in Organization Chart III some administrators are responsible for more than one sport. Certain sports, such as diving, water polo, synchronized swimming, track and field, and wrestling, have recently undergone a change in administrators. At this writing, a number of administrators positions, vacant due to resignations, have not been filled. The Executive Director (who presently is doubling as the sports administrator for track and field) reported to the Annual Convention in October 1976 that certain administrators will not be replaced because the AAU is attempting to reduce overhead costs. Unfortunately, Committee Chairmen and AAU administrators alike have told the Commission that the work load at Indianapolis is considerable and that volunteers in the field would appreciate more professional help from the national office.

Sports administrators are hired by and report to the Executive Director. (The one exception is the administrator hired by the Competitive Swimming Committee in 1976 who is independent of the AAU Executive Director.) Administrators are also responsible to the chairmen of the sports supervising committee and its subcommittees. This situation, wherein sports administrators are accountable to two bosses, sometimes creates a conflict. In such instances, assignments from the Executive Director usually have precedence. Most of the work performed by the administrators is in response to sports committee chairmen, but each sports committee uses the services of its administrator differently. Some committees use administrators for strictly clerical purposes, others rely on them to initiate activities and to do short and long range planning. Still others tend to ignore the administrators altogether. Administrators generally spend their time preparing teams for international travel, preparing for meetings, assisting in compilation of rule books and other AAU publications and handling special projects for the Executive Directors.

Sports committee chairmen and administrators tend to be too absorbed in day-to-day activities to develop and implement comprehensive and cohesive long-range development plans. Day-to-day management of events combined with the fact many of the individuals involved are volunteers who cannot devote the time, limit such efforts in many sports. The exceptions to this are the well-financed sports, like swimming. In such sports the need to raise money is less consuming and immediate, allowing chairmen and administrators more time to plan and make necessary intermediate and long term plans and adjustments thereto.

Relationship of AAU National to Sport Supervising Committees

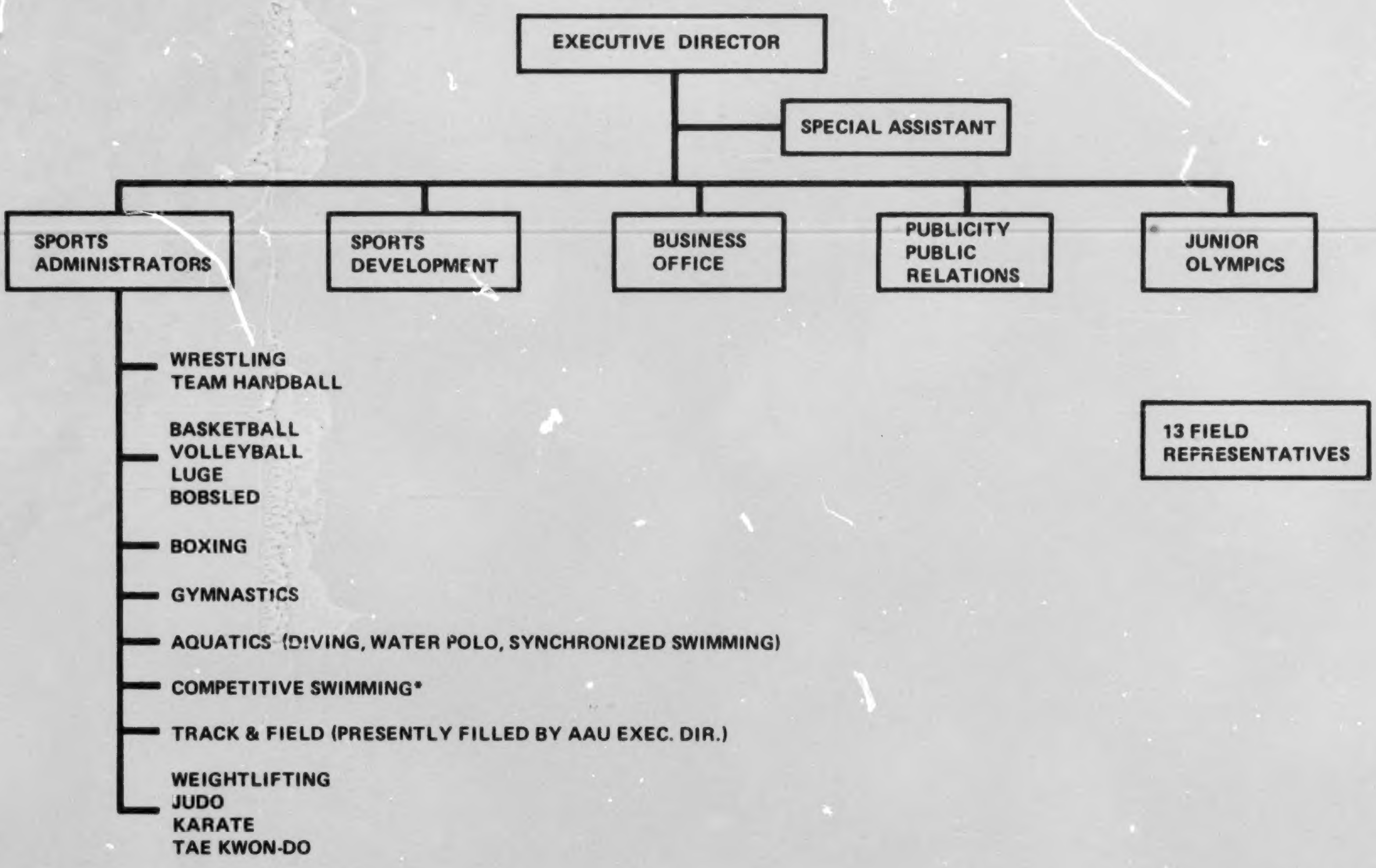
AAU National Headquarters does not provide sports committees with a standardized form to be used for budgeting purposes. At least six months before the beginning of the AAU fiscal year, each of the twenty sports committee chairmen prepares a budget for the approaching fiscal year. The extent to which the AAU sports administrators are involved in drafting these budgets depends upon the personal relationships between the sport committee chairman and the administrator assigned to that sport. At one end of the spectrum is weightlifting, whose committee chairman and sport administrator have worked closely together to develop a budget. At the other end of the spectrum is judo, wherein the same administrator is requested only to furnish cost and income estimates for a list of activities prepared exclusively by the judo committee chairman.

The independence of sport committees depends largely on the experience of committee chairmen and their perception of their own authority. The AAU National office reviews budgets of sports committees only to check on the availability of funds since AAU National is financially liable for any deficits incurred by the sports committees. (See section on *AAU Finances* for Budget Process details.) As explained earlier, however, no matter how independence is defined by a sports chairman, the Board of Governors is the ultimate decision maker at the AAU. (See Organization Chart III on the following page.)

ORGANIZATION CHART III

AAU NATIONAL HEADQUARTERS STAFF

(October, 1976)


EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
SPECIAL ASSISTANT
SPORTS ADMINISTRATORS
SPORTS DEVELOPMENT
BUSINESS OFFICE
PUBLICITY PUBLIC RELATIONS
JUNIOR OLYMPICS
WRESTLING
TEAM HANDBALL
BASKETBALL
VOLLEYBALL
LUGE
BOBSLED
BOXING
GYMNASTICS
AQUATICS (DIVING, WATER POLO, SYNCHRONIZED SWIMMING)
COMPETITIVE SWIMMING*
TRACK & FIELD (PRESENTLY FILLED BY AAU EXEC. DIR.)
WEIGHTLIFTING
JUDO
KARATE
TAE KWON-DO
13 FIELD REPRESENTATIVES

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*The administrator for competitive swimming is hired by the sports supervising committee; his/her salary comes out of the committee budget.

Described below are some of the services provided by national AAU.

Fund Raising

The AAU has a fund-raising and merchandising program designed to raise funds for various AAU sports programs. The Executive Director reported to the 1976 Convention that this program has not generated significant funds for the AAU. Consequently the AAU raised its assessment on dues paid by athletes.

Television Package

The AAU national office works with a television producer to produce and package AAU sports for television. The AAU receives about $300,000 per year from this program. It provides exposure on national TV for most AAU Olympic sports. According to the report of the Executive Director to the 1976 AAU Annual Convention, the AAU is receiving funds for this program but the production and marketing company is not generating a profit. Whether this television program is viable for the long term was not discussed in this announcement. However, the AAU retains the right to negotiate all television coverage of its sports. In 1976 the AAU took in $303,334 from activities in television, radio and films.

AAU RULES

Because one of the major reasons for establishing the AAU was to establish regulations for amateur sports, the AAU has developed a comprehensive set of rules which is codified in the AAU Code Book. The focus of this section will be on the rules pertaining to athletes.

Rule-making Process

The process by which AAU rules are made affects U. S. participation in international competition because as the NGB for 8 Olympic sports, the AAU requires a mechanism whereby domestic rules can rapidly be made to conform to constantly changing international federation rules. American athletes must be able to take advantage of the benefits of the current trend toward liberalization of rules evident in most international federations.

A case in point followed the 1972 decision of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) to amend its constitution to allow athletes to receive broken-time payments. AAU rules which previously prohibited athletes from receiving this type of compensation while preparing for international competition had to be altered so that American competitors could receive the same benefits as foreign athletes. The AAU system proved flexible and the body has supported a major campaign to find funding for the broken-time payments.

Two types of rules are enacted by the AAU: rules of play and rules of eligibility. The rule-making process for both types is similar. Rules of play are governed by the sport committee in each sport. Assisted by these committees, a local club or association or a national sport committee member may propose legislation repealing or adding to the existing body of rules. Any change must be approved at the Annual Convention by those members of the Board of Governors who represent the sport in question. The sport committees publish individual sport handbooks and are generally considered autonomous in adopting changes in rules of play.

Rules concerning athletic eligibility, however, are not the responsibility of individual sport committees. Such rules come under the jurisdiction of the National Registration Committee and although enacted by the same process as the rules of play, these rules have one distinguishing characteristic: eligibility rules govern all AAU athletes. These rules must be approved by the entire Board of Governors. Thus, as will be described later, a representative of one sport has a major role in making rules that affect competitors in all sports. A member of the Board of Governors may be unaware of the unique characteristics of some sports and also unfamiliar with all international federation rules. As a result an athlete may be prohibited from certain activities which are permitted by the international federation of his or her sport.

Procedural Review

Review of implementation and enforcement procedures for all AAU rules are provided for in the AAU Code. Athletes must seek AAU administrative remedies to redress grievances arising from the application of any rule or regulation. Traditionally, state and federal courts have refused to rule on the fairness of AAU rules or on consequences resulting from their enforcement because the AAU is a private, volunteer association. However, if such an organization steps beyond its own rules and thereby violates rights of its members which belong to all citizens, a court will intercede.

Thus, the court took exception to its hands-off policy in a recent case involving a member of the National Swimming Committee who was suspended from that committee and all AAU activities without review before the appropriate board, as provided in the AAU Code.[6] In this case, the Superior Court of California ruled that the AAU must follow its own rules of due process when enforcing penalties on its members and that the member had been unlawfully suspended.

Eligibility Rules

AAU rules have come under criticism from both athletes and sport groups for several reasons. Many athletes feel AAU rules are inconsistent with international rules of eligibility and prevent developing athletes from taking advantage of assistance that participants in other countries receive. In addition, exceptions to the general AAU rules have led many to accuse the AAU of an uneven policy in administering its domestic programs. This section will examine some of the major AAU rules and their effect on the ability of American athletes to be successful in international competition.

Discussion will be limited to the eight Olympic sports for which the AAU is the national governing body: aquatics, boxing, bobsled, luge, judo, track and field, wrestling and weightlifting. International federation (IF) rules in these sports vary widely. Some rules are very liberal while others are quite restrictive. As a result, AAU rules tend to be generally inconsistent with their international counterparts, since there is only one AAU eligibility Code for those of international federations. The Code does not reflect satisfactorily the differences in international regulations in four major areas: reinstatement, contamination, invitations, and receiving compensation for coaching or teaching.

Reinstatement Rules[7]

Reinstatement concerns the ability of amateur athletes to regain amateur status once they have lost it. International federation rules vary. For example, in the sports of judo and weightlifting no mention is made of reinstatement, while both wrestling and boxing forbid reinstatement of athletes once they have become professionals. The international swimming federation, on the other hand, states that an amateur who knowingly breaks an amateur rule cannot be requalified unless extenuating circumstances exist and two years have elapsed. In addition, special approval from the Fédération Internationale de Natation Amateur (FINA) is necessary if a swimmer desires to compete in international and Olympic competitions. In track and field the NGB must apply to the international federation on behalf of the athlete for reinstatement.

In an attempt to establish and maintain a uniform test of amateur standing and uniform rules for the government of all sports within its jurisdiction, the AAU has developed a complex set of regulations concerning reinstatement. If an athlete commits fraud, he or she is permanently prohibited from regaining eligibility. However, limited eligibility may be regained by a professional one year after retirement, unconditional release from a contract, or the last act of professionalism if the following conditions are met:

1) An athlete may not participate in any sport in which he or she participated professionally;

2) An athlete may not participate in national championships or international or Olympic competition; and

3) An athlete may not regain eligibility if he or she again violates rules of amateur standing.

In addition to limited reinstatement, an AAU athlete may obtain complete eligibility if, after entering into a tryout agreement or contract or participating in a professional training camp, he or she does not receive any compensation 30 days after his last appearance with the professional group. Lastly, an athlete may be reinstated at the discretion of the national registration committee if suspended because of participation in an unsanctioned event.

Contamination Rules

A second major area that causes confusion is competition between amateurs and professionals. Again, the variety of international rules contrasts with the uniform AAU regulations.

Under the AAU Code, an amateur may compete against a professional in a municipal program if the program is within the confines of a single state and under the supervision of the state agency. Acceptable prizes are limited to those ordinarily permitted by the AAU. Although the AAU Code allows professionals to compete with amateurs under these conditions, it discourages this type of competition.

Four international federations do not expressly limit professional and amateur contact on the domestic level, whether or not such competition falls within the confines of one state. In the sports of bobsled, luge and judo, for example, international rules do not prohibit amateurs from participating with professionals of their own nation. Weightlifting allows an amateur to participate in a professional match as long as his intention is not to become professional, thus making the matter discretionary.

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[6] *Albert Schoenfield* v. *Southern Pacific Association of the AAU*, Superior Court of the State of California, Los Angeles County, February 25, 1976.

[7] All references to international rules are to the written regulations contained in IF constitutions and by-laws. Custom and usage may vary in some cases.

In contrast, the AAU rule is more liberal than the international rules of track and field, boxing, wrestling and swimming because these international federations prohibit any professional-amateur competition, including competition restricted to events sponsored by state administrations.

Invitation Rules

Invitation rules require that the NGB, not the athlete, receive the invitation to compete abroad, and that the NGB make arrangements for all international competitions. International federations have these rules in varying degree. Wrestling and track and field require that invitations be extended directly or indirectly to the athlete through the NGB. The international swimming federation allows more freedom in that it requires only that regulating international competition be under the control of the NGB. Judo and luge have no specific rules in their constitutions or by-laws on this subject.

The AAU rule, on the other hand, is absolute in prohibiting any athlete or group from receiving an initial invitation or making arrangements for international competition. One consequence of an improperly directed invitation is illustrated by an incident involving the U. S. Judo Association (USJA). Not a member of the AAU at the time, USJA sought approval in July 1974 to sponsor an international tour from October 21 through November 12, 1974. The trip was planned and negotiated by USJA prior to seeking AAU approval. Although this action did not violate any rule of the International Judo Federation, it was contrary to the AAU rule. Despite continued communication by USJA, the AAU did not act on the request for three months. Six days before the tour was to leave, the AAU Judo Committee, by a vote of 48 to 45, recommended that approval be denied. No reasons were given and no claim was made that any technical requirement had not been met. USJA finally persuaded the AAU to approve the trip one day before the group was to leave. Unfortunately, the group was minus an athlete who had returned home from the departure point (Washington, D. C.) to avoid any repercussions from what appeared to be an unsanctioned trip.

Receiving Compensation for Coaching and Teaching

Many athletes would like to use their ability and expertise in sports to train and coach young athletes for pay. The international federations of the eight AAU Olympic sports have rules ranging from total prohibition to complete freedom to engage in coaching. For example, no restrictions are place on athletes by the international federations in judo and wrestling. International rules in luge and track and field, on the other hand, allow an athlete to teach only elementary education in his or her sport, and only as long as the athlete is not training students in preparation for competition. International rules in bobsled and boxing prohibit all teaching or coaching at any level in any sport.

According to the AAU Code, athletes who are school or college teachers may receive compensation for athletic services as long as not more than 20% of their total salary or compensation is derived from coaching athletes for competition. This rule is qualified by the provision that such compensation must be permitted by the rules of the international federation in the athlete's sport. In the sports of judo and wrestling, the AAU Code thus prohibits an athlete from being a full-time coach even though the IF rules in those sports would allow him or her to do so and retain amateur eligibility.

Domestic Rules

Aside from the amateur rules designed to qualify athletes for international competition, the AAU has eligibility requirements for participation in its own programs. Rules applying to domestic eligibility have come under sharp attack from those who feel the rules favor certain groups by exempting them from general requirements.

For example, the four-month residency requirement applying to all unattached competitors wishing to take part in a district or association championship meet is waived for competitive swimmers. Another example is the rule affecting basketball players. Men's team players are required to be U. S. citizens, while women's teams may have two non-U. S. citizen AAU players. Another example is the rule prohibiting the sale of sporting goods, prizes, trophies and other commodities for any sport by an athlete for 90 days prior to any AAU competition. However an athlete registered and enrolled as a student at an accredited college, university or high school may sell such merchandise.

If each AAU sport had greater autonomy in developing rules and interpretations consistent with the rules of its international federation, the parent organization would be less susceptible to charges of favoritism and inequity.

FINANCE

For the year ending June 30, 1976, the AAU national office spent $1,054,627 and the sports supervising committees spent $928,695. For the year ending June 30, 1975, the comparable figures were $736,102 and $1,294,743. For the 1976 fiscal year AAU National operated with a deficit of $262,099. In 1975 the deficit was $74,497. The table below is a summary of the unrestricted income and expenditures and changes in Fund Balance (Deficit) for 1975 and 1976. This summary was abstracted from the latest two AAU annual reports. Note that fees and admissions and television provide the majority of the AAU's income while salaries and distribution of television movies are the largest expenditures. As of June 30, 1976, the AAU was funding its operating deficiency through a loan secured by its stocks and bonds.

The audited financial statements do not reflect the income or expenses of the regions, associations and clubs, as each of these are separate entities with independent budgets. The AAU

Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, Inc.
(National Headquarters)

Statement of Current Unrestricted Income and
Expenditures and Changes in Fund Balance (Deficit)

For the Years Ended in June 30, 1976 and June 30, 1975

Income:	*1976*	*1975*
Fees and admissions:		
Dues, registrations and sanction fees	$ 229,346	$227,508
Championship fees, entry fees & emblems, net	23,992	24,229
	253,338	251,737
Television, radio and films	303,334	229,016
Sales of handbooks, emblems, pins, etc.	103,217	89,596
A.A.U. News magazine	47,239	45,514
License and royalty fees	26,223	–
Contributions	21,582	29,471
Miscellaneous	37,595	16,271
Total income	792,528	661,605
Expenditures:		
Salaries, payroll taxes & employee benefits	294,603	289,809
Television, radio and films	308,330	–
Cost of handbooks, uniforms, emblems and pins	57,382	48,228
Telephone and telegraph	52,518	74,128
Investigations and hearings	49,784	50,076
A.A.U. News magazine	46,980	51,593
Travel – general and Junior Olympics	42,870	–
Travel – officer, executive director & sports administrators	–	34,845
Printing, stationery and supplies	33,803	54,192
Postage and freight	29,509	26,420
Annual meeting	21,851	31,416
Publicity and promotion	19,795	–
Membership dues	12,905	10,487
Professional services	12,011	11,079
Building and equipment maintenance	11,458	12,071
Miscellaneous	60,828	41,758
Total expenditures	1,054,627	736,102
Deficiency of income over expenditures before accounting change	(262,099)	(74,497)
Cumulative effect on prior year's accounting	–	48,774
Deficiency of income over expenditures	(262,099)	(25,723)
Fund balance at June 30, 1975 & June 30, 1974	153,002	183,140
Transfer from restricted & designated fund	–	25,000
Transfer to sports team funds:		
Allocation of TV income & expenditures	32,600	20,750
Interest credited to travel fund – men & women	23,870	8,665
	(56,470)	(29,415)
Fund balance (deficit at June 30, 1976)	$ 165,567	$153,002

Abstracted from the audited financial statements prepared by Peat, Marwick, Mitchell & Company.

office does not audit or monitor the financial operations of these groups. No reliable comprehensive estimate of these organizations' activities is available. However, all but $1.50 of the registration fee per AAU athlete is kept at the local level for general administration purposes. In addition, each association may set its own level for registration fees and club dues beyond the national dues structure.

The table below illustrates the schedule of changes in Current Restricted and Designated Fund Balances (Deficits) for each of the AAU sports and special funds as abstracted from the latest two annual reports of the AAU.

The fund balances refer to the individual AAU sports funds, used to finance activities defined by the sports supervising committees and approved by the Executive Director and the Executive Committee. Activities include international competition, hosting foreign teams in the U. S., holding clinics, etc. The AAU Executive Director or Executive Committee could reject a budget plan for lack of general funds or lack of team funds.

In 1976, the men's track and field committee had a deficit of $157,000, about $42,000 more than its deficit the year before. The trampoline team fund, a non-Olympic sport, remained at deficit level in 1976 in the amount of $10,000. Other sports operating in the red were men's basketball ($4,000), women's track and field ($400) and race walking ($2,000).

Swimming had a positive team balance of $212,000 ($93,000 of it in a savings account), diving and wrestling each had balances of about $15,000, and the other sport funds were modestly in the black at the end of the AAU financial year (June 30, 1976). Swimming's team fund account has been used by the AAU national office for purposes other than swimming. In

Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, Inc.
(National Headquarters)
Schedule of Changes in Current Restricted and Designated Fund Balances (Deficit)
For the years ended June 30, 1975 and June 30, 1976

	Balance (deficit) at June 30, 1974	*Additions*	*Deductions*	*Balance (deficit) at June 30, 1975*	*Additions*	*Deductions*	*Balance (deficit) at June 30, 1976*
Memorial trophy fund	$ 30,656	$ 2,199	$ 876	$ 31,979	$ 2,918	$ 1,756	$ 33,141
General funds:							
Employees retirement fund	121,329	12,515	26,080	107,764	13,475	33,116	88,123
Life membership fund	89,725	4,831	26,445	68,111	4,476	783	71,804
	211,054	17,346	52,525	175,875	17,951	33,899	159,927
Junior Olympic fund	39,986	509,263	547,315	1,939	361,164	388,498	(25,395)
Youth Athletes fund	(27,871)	27,877	–	–	–	–	–
	12,109	537,145	547,315	1,939	361,164	388,498	(25,395)
Sports funds:							
Long distance running team fund	356	9,064	736	8,684	16,015	12,061	12,638
Diving team fund	9,019	7,552	3,020	13,551	7,152	4,167	16,536
Wrestling fund	(3,404)	192,044	177,010	11,630	76,868	72,683	15,815
Synchronized swimming team fund	3,634	3,788	3,808	3,614	6,268	1,839	6,043
Track and field team fund – men	(76,129)	188,494	230,629	(118,264)	32,385	70,927	(156,806)
Track and field team fund – women	(12,348)	4,369	740	(8,719)	9,353	1,058	(424)
Gymnastic team fund	16	3,670	4,003	(317)	8,027	96	7,614
Boxing team fund	(10,244)	61,152	48,142	2,766	75,515	49,691	28,590
Water polo team fund – men & women	1,279	4,560	4,283	1,556	3,376	1,280	3,652
Weightlifting team fund	1,138	9,679	7,934	2,883	12,021	11,747	3,157
International swim travel fund – men & women	155,583	144,282	124,767	175,098	196,163	158,959	212,302
Race-walking team fund	(1,624)	80	240	(1,784)	149	246	(1,881)
Bobsled team fund	182	14,571	13,800	953	3,710	4,293	370
Basketball team fund – men	(5,905)	33,593	38,978	(11,290)	84,877	77,404	(3,817)
Basketball team fund – women	(2,089)	16,464	18,606	(4,231)	6,303	1,489	583
Trampoline team fund	(11,017)	5,384	5,580	(11,213)	944	–	(10,269)
Judo fund	12,863	12,644	8,947	16,360	13,441	29,385	616
Other sports team funds	(4,292)	7,686	2,804	590	10,795	7,217	4,168
	57,018	719,076	694,027	82,067	563,362	504,542	140,887
Total	$310,837	$1,275,766	$1,294,743	$291,860	$945,395	$928,695	$308,560

Abstracted from the audited financial statements for the years ended June 30, 1975 and 1976 as prepared by Peat, Marwick, Mitchell & Company.

Estimates of Funds Spent by Sponsors*
on National Championships or International Events
(Annualized Basis)

	Figures in Thousands
Long Distance Running and Race Walking	–
Diving	40
Water Polo	20
Synchronized Swimming	20
Wrestling	300–500
Swimming	50
Track and Field	300–400
Gymnastics	20
Boxing	125–175
Weightlifting	20
Bobsled	20–25
Luge	5
Basketball	90–115
Trampoline	–
Judo	25
Karate	30
Tae Kwon Do	5
Junior Olympics (all sports)	500–1000
	$1,570–$2,450

*The above reflects only the costs of the sponsors and not costs absorbed by individual athletes.

1975 the Chairman of the Competitive Swimming Committee appointed the Chairman of the Finance Sub-Committee to investigate why the swimming team funds had been used by AAU National. It was agreed that the AAU would reduce its liability to swimming over a two- to three-year period. By the end of the 1976 financial year this liability was being reduced, but at the 1976 Convention it was found that AAU National could not maintain its repayment schedule due to its own deficit financial condition and that swimming would have to pay $50,000 of its own bills, contrary to its agreement with AAU National. A new repayment schedule was agreed upon.

Estimate of Expenditures by AAU National

The Commission, in seeking the total funds available for amateur and Olympic sports in the U.S., worked with the AAU to compile the figures shown on this page. It is impossible to estimate either the total or the sport-by-sport expenditures of all the organizations affiliated with the AAU. Even the figures presented below have wide parameters. It is a list of expenses by category for AAU sports. The expenses shown are estimates of the support provided by the AAU national office to each sport.

AAU Sport Expenditures on an Annual Basis:
National Office

		Category			
Sport	*Facilities*	*Competition*	*Administration*	*Development*	*Total*
Olympic (NGB):					
Bobsled	–	$ 153	$ 13,000	–	$ 13,153
Boxing	–	45,740	11,947	–	57,687
Diving	–	3,200	5,264	–	8,464
Judo	–	23,853	17,795	–	41,648
Luge	–	1,000	12,500	–	13,500
Swimming	–	103,943	34,402	3,257	141,602
Track & Field	–	106,835	29,142	250	136,327
Water Polo	–	1,235	5,045	–	6,280
Weightlifting	–	7,239	16,508	–	23,747
Wrestling	–	62,696	25,319	4,549	92,564
Total	–	$355,899	$170,922	$8,056	$534,872
Olympic Sports (Governed by other organizations)					
Basketball – Men's	–	$ 77,127	$ 2,721	–	$ 79,848
Basketball – Women	–	1,680	–	–	1,680
Gymnastics	–	95	–	–	95
Karate – Men	–	4,590	88	–	4,678
Karate – Women	–	–	12	–	12
Tae Kwon Do	–	–	454	–	454
Total	–	$ 83,492	$ 3,275	–	$ 86,767
GRAND TOTAL	–	$439,386	$174,197	$8,056	$621,639

*Compiled by the Commission in cooperation with AAU administrators.

All events, including national championships, are sponsored by local organizations and are supported by volunteer efforts. Financial accounting is perceived by many sponsors as the least important expenditure of time among the myriad of activities required to stage an event. For many events, funding is a problem. Reported expenditures normally equal or exceed receipts; usually a local sponsor has to assume the liability personally or undertake additional, local fundraising. In a few instances total costs, including items such as local transportation and lodging, are paid by sponsors. In most cases, however, sponsors pay for the event costs only and participants must assume their own expenses.

The period covered in the table illustrating estimates of funds spent by sponsors is a hypothetical year, and may not reflect all requirements for funds. Many sport-by-sport costs were projected from estimates based on schedules of events which are reported on a calendar year basis. By contrast, AAU National Headquarters maintains its records on a fiscal year which ends on June 30. Hence, some duplications or omissions undoubtedly exist.

The normal business year for the international aspects of many sports is more than one year long. Many foreign tours are arranged on a "home-and-home" basis wherein the host country absorbs all of the costs of the visitors. Since this alternating arrangement takes two years to complete, the fluctuations from year-to-year may result in a distorted financial picture when only one year's figures are presented.

The AAU Olympic sports benefit from USOC development grants. These funds are requested by the Olympic Committees for each sport and not by the AAU national office. The funds are appropriated by the USOC for a quadrennial but are remitted through USOC-approved financial intermediaries. The USOC funds are not included in AAU National audited financial statements. Specific discussion of USOC development grants appear in the sport reports and the chapter on the USOC elsewhere in this volume.

The AAU national office is mainly in the business of supplying administrative support to its associations, clubs and officers. Approximately 71% of AAU Headquarters funds are spent for national and international competition. About 80% of national AAU expenditures are for Olympic sports.

Budget Process

Each sport does its own budgeting. The process by which the sports approach the budgeting process varies. The AAU national office does not provide sports committees with a standard budget form or a suggested approach. In some sports the committee chairman develops a budget with the aid of the sports administrator. Commission staff interviews with AAU administrators have indicated that the administrators play little if any financial role either within AAU Headquarters or in connection with their sports.

Sport committee budgets are essentially event-based. Most AAU sports budgets are prepared according to the following procedures. All invitations extended by other countries for U. S. athletes to tour, compete or train abroad during the coming year are placed on a schedule. In addition, activities or events arranged by the committee chairman (involving either visiting sport groups from other countries or national level domestic competitions, exhibits, tours, training camps, etc.) are added to the schedule.

For each event listed on the schedule rough estimates are made of income and expenditure for sponsors, gate fees, or television rights. These dollar estimates generally are based on past experience with similar activities. Each sports supervising committee reviews the budget either at the AAU Convention or at the committee's national meeting. Additions or deletions to scheduled events are suggested and voted on at that time. Budgets can vary drastically with the appointment of new chairmen and committee members who have philosophies and priorities different from those of the previous committee administration. Each scheduled event must be administered by at least one committee member who is responsible for making all the logistical arrangements and raising funds and in-kind contributions from local businesses, governments, charity or fraternal groups, and individuals.

Many of the scheduled activities for a year are standard annual events. Others represent additions as a sport attempts to broaden its program. The AAU Executive Director is not authorized to veto any scheduled events outright, although he does review the budgets and makes recommendations when he thinks projections may be unrealistic or may result in deficits that would have to be covered by the national office.

The AAU sports administrator oversees the implementation of the calendar and budget for his sport. The role of the AAU sports administrator depends again upon the personal relationship between the committee chairman and administrator. Some committee chairmen use the administrator purely as a bookkeeper, administrative assistant, or the like. Others encourage the administrator to develop long-range plans and objectives for the sport and to arrange for new events.

As the fiscal year progresses, and actual figures are compared with projected figures, adjustments may be necessary in the remaining budget. These differentials are reflected in the monthly balance sheets in each sport, provided to the committee chairman and administrator. Budget adjustments are the responsibility of the committee chairman. If revenues are exceeding costs, additional activities may be scheduled. In the more likely case that costs exceed revenues by a greater margin than projected, scheduled activities are deleted. The AAU honors its commitments for international events ahead of any other programs. While national competitions and development activities are also important to the AAU, the need to provide international competitive opportunities is given highest priority. Administrators submit their own reports to the Executive Director.

DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS OF THE AAU

The AAU offers various development programs through its sports supervising committees and the national headquarters. Development is defined as training and competitive opportunities for all ages and all stages of athletic competence. The AAU offers programs for accomplished athletes and for developing athletes. One of the AAU's most significant contributions in the area of development has been the age group and the Junior Olympic competitions, discussed elsewhere in this volume on a sport-by-sport basis.

Junior Olympic

The Junior Olympic (J.O.) Program was created in 1949 to provide opportunities for young athletes 6 to 18 years old to compete at their own age levels. Local, regional and national competition is offered through the 58 associations. Fifteen regional championships lead to the annual National AAU Junior Olympic Championships. The basic objectives of the AAU and of the J.O. program are the encouragement of systematic exercise in the United States and the improvement and promotion of athletics.

At the outset the Junior Olympics consisted of age group competition only in swimming and track and field. In 1967 the AAU conducted the first national multi-sport tournament, consolidating the swimming and track and field championships into one event. By 1970, boxing, trampoline, weightlifting, water polo and luge had been added to the national Junior Olympic Championship roster.

In 1972 the Chevrolet Motor Division of General Motors Corporation became the first national sponsor of the Junior Olympic and Physical Fitness Programs. According to the AAU, the number of athletes involved in Junior Olympics exceeded one million in 1972. The Chevrolet-sponsored Junior Olympics benefitted from the large base of AAU volunteers and the dispersed network of Chevrolet dealers all of whom have worked together in expanding this development program over the four years, 1972-76.

In 1975, individual national championships were held in the sports of basketball, volleyball, luge, cross-country, water polo, boxing and synchronized swimming. In addition, a multi-sport national championship (involving swimming, diving, track and field, judo, wrestling, gymnastics, trampoline), in which over 2,000 athletes participated, was staged in Ithaca, New York.

Junior Olympic competition is open to all registered AAU athletes who qualify on an age basis. Elite athletes or finalists in National AAU senior championship or members of World Championship Pan American or Olympic Teams are ineligible for Junior Olympic events in that sport. The AAU association conducting a Junior Olympic Program may waive the registration fee and normally does. Athletes must still register with the AAU, however. The AAU national office could not provide the Commission with an accurate number of participants in J.O. competition since it does not find it necessary for regions to report registrations and since not all participants require an AAU card.

In 1976 Chevrolet reduced the level of its financial support for the J.O. program from about $500,000 in 1975 to approximately $300,000 in 1976 for a variety of reasons. Among these were 1) a cutback in spending due to the recession, 2) a reassignment of priorities within Chevrolet corporate headquarters, and 3) AAU did not have enough communication with Chevrolet decision makers. In 1977 Chevrolet will not sponsor the Junior Olympics and at this writing the AAU has not secured a new national sponsor. The Junior Olympics will continue, however, and the AAU Executive Committee concluded in 1976 that in order to keep the program going it will recommend a 25 cent fee be levied for each athlete entered. Because the total number of athletes participating in Junior Olympics is unknown, it is impossible to estimate the revenues this fee could generate.

Each AAU sport with a Junior Olympic Program has established rules of play, rules of conduct of events and other rules structured to the various age groups. In certain sports J.O. programs incorporate age group competitions (e.g.

luge and swimming), while others have separate age group and Junior Olympic competitions (e.g. diving).

Age Group Programs

While the Junior Olympics multi-sports programs are likened by some AAU administrators to "the circus coming to town," age group events are more serious contests, ranked by officials as an important test or measure of the athletes of "tomorrow's Olympic Team."

In addition to programs in Olympic sports for which it is the NGB, the AAU conducts development programs in volleyball, gymnastics and basketball, sports governed by independent NGBs. The AAU also conducts competitions in, and has a sports supervising committee for, sports that are not Olympic sports. These include synchronized swimming (a Pan American Games sport), cross-country running, and trampoline and tumbling (an important development activity for diving and gymnastics).

COMPETITION

National and international competition programs in each Olympic sport are dealt with by sport elsewhere in this volume. However, the AAU is involved in international competition to a large degree. AAU National must:

- Review proposed competitions to see if there are funds available;
- Negotiate trips abroad with international federations or foreign countries in conjunction with or on behalf of the supervising sports committee;
- Supply uniforms and competitive outfits to insure that adequate and appropriate clothing is worn by team members and that the AAU logo is included on all uniforms; and
- Assist in the conduct of a dual meet, national indoor or outdoor championship or other event.

OTHER ORGANIZATIONS AND THE AAU

The AAU/NCAA Dispute

The AAU/NCAA dispute is described by many in the AAU as a continuing disagreement in the sport of track and field and that non-track and field sports suffer because of that conflict. In fact, there are fundamental areas of dispute between the AAU and NCAA in amateur sports. The disputes relate to:

1) The structure of national governing bodies: provision of reasonable representation to all organizations with national programs in a given sport;
2) The sanctioning of events by NGBs: reasonable and fair application of the NGBs authority to sanction international events and to issue travel permits; and
3) Resources: the school/college community possesses much more in the way of facilities and coaches than do the clubs, which usually must arrange to use facilities owned by other organizations including the schools.

Symptoms of the argument crop up in sports such as wrestling, but the dispute seems to have little impact on other sports such as swimming and water polo. Most U. S. coaches for Olympic sports are employed by the colleges, but often have second jobs with clubs (AAU or other), coaching club athletes. These coaches therefore serve simultaneously on collegiate and club committees and work with personnel of both systems.

If one looks beyond the emotion on either side and reviews each organization's goals and objectives, one senses that the dispute is based on more than just the personalities of each group's leadership. The AAU's goal is to provide competitive opportunities in its Olympic sports for clubs and athletes, to conduct national championships and national team trials, and to select and send the best possible teams to represent the AAU and/or the U.S. in international competition.

The NCAA sports program, on the other hand, is designed to provide students with athletic opportunities to complement academic pursuits. College athletic programs are oriented toward winning the conference, regional or national title (if any) in a particular sport. While colleges take great pride in their athletes being selected to national teams, this honor is often seen as secondary to success in the collegiate athletic program.

These fundamental differences have led to scheduling conflicts, denials of sanction requests for unrestricted or international competitive events, denials of athletes' rights to compete and creation of federations supported by the NCAA to challenge the AAU for the franchise in particular sports. These are all discussed elsewhere in this report.[a]

AAU's Agreements with Other Organizations

The AAU has alliance agreements with the

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[a] In particular, see the chapters in this volume on the NCAA, USOC, basketball, gymnastics, track and field and wrestling, and the Volume I chapters on Resolution of Franchise Disputes and Athletes' Rights.

YMCA, Catholic Youth Organization (CYO), National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA), U. S. Judo Federation (USJF), Amateur Softball Association and Road Runners Club of America. These agreements, in conjunction with the AAU Code, formalize the relationship between the AAU and these organizations, including representation on the AAU Board of Governors and Board of Directors.

The NCAA and the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) do not have any such formal affiliation with the AAU. However, the President and the sport supervising committees may elect and appoint representatives from these organizations to various AAU bodies.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) was founded in the latter part of the 19th Century for the purpose of protecting amateur athletes from those seeking to "professionalize" amateur athletics in general, or the athletes themselves. Ironically, in light of its founding rationale and distinguished history, the organization recently has come under heavy fire for seemingly arbitrary and capricious use of the various powers vested in it as national governing body (NGB) for eight Olympic sports.

The AAU's activities must be viewed both from the perspective of its "umbrella" role as national governing body for several sports, and from the perspective of the volunteer working at the club or association level within the organization. More than 300,000 AAU volunteers organized into 7,000 individual clubs and 15 regions work tirelessly to promote the amateur athletic ideal and to provide the infrastructure through which many U. S. world class athletes have progressed over the last several decades.

Neither the national AAU nor its member clubs or associations own or operate a significant number of athletic facilities, nor does the AAU regularly employ coaches and trainers on any significant scale. Its philosophy is one of athlete development through competition and, although its developmental activities are not as broad as some would desire, the AAU Junior Olympic Program is heralded throughout the amateur athletic community as being among the best junior competitive programs in the world.

AAU National Headquarters focuses primarily on its responsibilities as the NGB for eight Olympic sports and on conducting programs in the ten other sports in which it is active. To support these activities, the national office retains $1.50 of each individual athlete registration fee, one-third of which is allocated for the use of the sport supervising committee of the primary sport listed on the registrant's application. Other sources of funds include 1) corporate sponsorship programs (e.g., Chevrolet's recent sponsorship of the Junior Olympics), 2) gate receipts from sponsorship of individual athletic events, and 3) revenue from the sale of television rights.

AAU National Headquarters provides such services as: 1) arranging competition with athletes or teams from other countries, both here and abroad; 2) negotiating television and other media contracts with the major networks, as well as with a syndicated television enterprise leading to the distribution of the "Champion" series; 3) managing the medical insurance program, and 4) printing rule books for the various sports falling under the AAU umbrella.

The Union has also taken the lead in advocating and attempting to implement programs or activities designed to improve the overall condition of amateur athletics. Most recently the AAU was instrumental in advocating the more widespread adoption of a "broken-time" payment program for the nation's elite athletes. The AAU is, and has been, a significant force in the U. S. Olympic Committee and in the American Olympic movement in general.

Each of the 58 constituent AAU associations is entitled to representation on the major committees for each of the sports in which the AAU maintains programs. While these committees are generally responsible for day-to-day conduct of the sport, their decisions are ultimately subject to substantive review by the Board of Governors of the AAU. The Board of Governors meets once a year at the AAU Annual Convention and is largely composed of representatives from the 58 associations and the sport committees. The more than 2,000 members of the Board of Governors retain ultimate authority regarding budgetary matters, rules of eligibility, allied membership agreements and so on.

The AAU finds itself increasingly under fire because of the authority that can be exercised by the Board of Governors under the existing AAU Code. Advocates of the present structure argue that, as a practical matter, the individual sport supervising committees hold the major voice in determining the rules of eligibility in a given sport, the best policies for the sport, and how resources will be spent. They further argue that for the U. S. to maintain its strength in international competition and to carry weight in international sports councils, a strong multifaceted organization is needed, particularly one with a thriving grass roots base, such as that provided by AAU volunteers.

Opponents of the AAU argue that the umbrella concept is both inefficient and unfair, especially in such particulars as rules for eligibility, for example. One set of rules applying to several sports can be, of necessity, only as liberal as the most restrictive rules of the international federations of the sports under its jurisdiction. Ultimately, this works to the detriment of the athletes involved. Further, opponents argue that decisions affecting an individual sport should be made, both in the first instance and ultimately, by the individuals most directly concerned with the sport, i.e., the athletes, administrators, coaches and officials who deal with that sport on a day-to-day basis.

The AAU is gradually changing course in response to both internal and external pressures. The loss of the basketball and gymnastics franchises over the last several years, combined with continuing pressure by the NCAA-backed federations in other sports, has stimulated active pursuit of a rapprochement with some of the organizations directly involved. Internal unrest apparent in swimming, one of the AAU's major sports, has caused the parent organization to consider more closely how best to spend funds generated by and through that sport. Competition posed by the U. S. Wrestling Federation has spurred the AAU to improve its wrestling programs considerably.

Nonetheless, the pressure remains great and it would appear that additional major changes are required at the national level if harmony is to be achieved. It appears that members of the AAU themselves will press for: 1) greater autonomy for the individual sports supervising committees; and 2) alterations in the national organization, designed to ensure continuing effective supply of intersport services essential to the maintenance of our position as a premier competitor on the international scene.

Resolution of long-standing organizational disputes plaguing many AAU sports will be difficult, but not impossible. With such resolution, existing resources can be reallocated and the process of raising additional funds from both the corporate and private communities should be facilitated. New resources are badly needed to increase the number and scope of developmental programs such as the Junior Olympics. Additional funds will also permit an expansion of the administrative capacity of the national headquarters and an increased focus on programs for post-school amateur athletes.

Over the years, the AAU has been of major importance and assistance to the American amateur athletic community. However, the organization is currently beset by internal controversy and external criticism. There is much it does and more it can and should do for amateur athletics in this country. Its ability to respond effectively to the pressures for change will determine how influential its future role in American amateur sports will be. Perhaps more important, however, its response to these challenges will determine the ultimate ability of the U. S. to field the best competitors in the international arena.

THE AMERICAN ALLIANCE FOR HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION, AND RECREATION (AAHPER)

The American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (AAHPER) is a voluntary membership organization composed of seven professional associations. AAHPER is headquartered in Washington, D.C., and its offices are in the National Education Association Center. Its stated goal is to improve the quality of life through health, leisure, and movement-related activities.

Total membership in AAHPER is close to 50,000, representing coaches, officials, trainers, teachers, athletic directors, and other sport leaders. It has the largest number of individual memberships of the major sport associations.

In a revealing description of the goals and objectives of the organization, the President of AAHPER stated in testimony to the Commission:

> "Basic to integrity in sport is concern for the participant. It is the essence of our responsibility. The development of the athlete, the education of the participant, is a lifetime concern. In our country, the major responsibility for such development falls upon the shoulders of the schools and most heavily upon the shoulders of physical educators. Attitudes, skills, understandings are all taught; and when they are taught well, the membership of the Alliance plays a major role in that process. The Alliance is interested in the development of the emerging athlete and has dedicated itself to the sound preparation of that individual. [Opportunities for athletic participation] for males and females are sponsored by the schools, churches, and communities. They are usually coached and trained by professional people who are aware of growth and development patterns and who are alert to the athlete's needs. The Alliance membership is heavily involved in these sport programs and over 60% of our members are organizing and administering such programs. We conduct research relative to these programs, we have clinics, institutes and conferences about these programs; and we coach, teach, officiate, train and administer these programs. In short, we are the people who *do* the things that many other sport organizations merely organize."

More than one-fourth of the members of the seven associations of AAHPER are employed in colleges and universities, more than one-half are employed in elementary and secondary schools, and nearly one-fifth are student members. AAHPER is a national affiliate of the National Education Association and is an international member of the International Council on Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (ICHPER).

AAHPER is a Group B member of the United States Olympic Committee, is a charter member of the United States Collegiate Sports Council, and holds membership in many of the sport organizations. Among its major affiliations are the National Association for Sport and Physical Education, the National Association for Girls and Women in Sport, the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), the National Intramural Sport Council (NISC) and the Aquatics Council. AAHPER has informal relations with groups such as the American College of Sports Medicine, the American Academy of Physical Education, the President's

Council on Physical Fitness and Sport, and the various national associations for physical education of college men and women.

Additionally, AAHPER maintains communication with the National Collegiate Athletic Association, the National Association for Intercollegiate Athletics, the National Junior College Athletic Association, the Amateur Athletic Union and other sports governing bodies. Noticeably absent from this list of affiliations is the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA) which has all 50 state high school athletic/activity associations, the District of Columbia association, and nine Canadian Provinces' interscholastic organizations as members. The Federation represents the interests of these athletic associations on the national level and is concerned with the maintenance of certain standards in the sports programs of its members.

While AAHPER as an organization has little to do with governing high school athletic competition, those individuals who actually conduct the programs in high school sports are usually members of AAHPER and its substructures for example, in the National Council of Secondary Schools, Athletic Directors and the National Council of State High School Coaches Associations. Thus, the school itself is likely to be a member of the State association affiliated with the National Federation, while the institution's employees are individual members of AAHPER. Relations between the two groups, however, are not always harmonious (see NFSHSA report in this volume). Further, many in the high school community tend to feel that AAHPER is overly controlled by college and university educators and that the needs of the high school personnel are not always adequately addressed on the national level.

AAHPER is concerned with health, physical education and recreation. While these concerns impact on success in competitive sport, there are other elements necessary for a successful competitive sport program. As a result, philosophies of sport held by some members of AAHPER are sometimes in conflict with those organizations solely devoted to competitive sport. Conversely, these same members of AAHPER offer fair criticism of what they perceive to be overemphasis on competition and winning in the U. S. sports system.

The seven associations through which AAHPER conducts its programs are:

–American Association for Leisure and Recreation Services (AALRS),

–The American School and Community Safety Association (ASCSA),

–The Association for the Advancement of Health Education (AAHE),

–Association for Research Administration and Professional Councils and Societies (ARAPCS),

–National Association for Girls and Women in Sport (NAGWS), including AIAW,

–National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE), and

–The National Dance Association (NDA).

AALRS has a membership of more than 5,000 educators professionally involved with leisure and recreation for all ages. It provides leadership in the area of curriculum development, research and planning, facilities development, and accreditation and certification procedures. Examples of activities undertaken by AALPS include development of an information system of experts on recreation and leisure topics, publication of guidelines for communication and cooperation between community schools and recreation and park agencies, and co-sponsorship of a Leisure Consulting Seminar.

ASCSA emphasizes safety in sports and is expanding its program to include other school and community safety concerns, such as education for injury control, safety education in the school, highway safety, and first aid and emergency care. Some of ASCA's accomplishments over the past year include publication of a newsletter, *Safety Forum*, and sponsorship of a program in recreational boating, education and certification.

Members of AAHE are professionals with responsibility for health education in schools, communities and colleges. AAHE works for continuing, comprehensive programs of health education through AAHPER district and state structures. Position statements are developed on such health topics as certification, drug education, and comprehensive health education programs. Subcommittees of the AAHE Board, designated to be liaison groups with the six AAHPER districts, help to communicate these policies, as do 50 state AAHE committees which establish and spearhead campaigns for the Comprehensive School Health Education Act. Further dissemination takes place through the new AAHE newsletter.

ARAPCS coordinates the following special interests councils in health, physical education and recreation: Aquatics, College and University Administrators, City and County Directors, Outdoor Education and Camping, Facilities, Equipment and Supplies, International Relations, Measurement and Evaluation, Physical Fitness, Research, Therapeutics, and Student Action. Recent accomplishments include the development of a five-volume Encyclopedia of Physical Education through the Research Council, continuing development of standards and certification for personnel through the Aquatic Council, sponsorship of workshops and a conference in outdoor education through the Council on Outdoor Education and Camping, and sponsorship of workshops on contemporary administrative problems through the College and University Administrative Council.

NAGWS is organized to serve the special interests of elementary, secondary and collegiate level teachers, coaches, officials, athletic administrators, athletic trainers and club sports intramurals directors. In addition to special interest publications, NAGWS publishes more than 20 Sports Guides which are used by thousands of high school and college students and teachers. NAGWS also holds conferences for national coaches (four annually) and state chairpersons on special topics such as "Women in Sport: Institute for Change." The Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) is a structure within NAGWS, which provides leadership for initiating and maintaining standards of excellence in women's intercollegiate athletic programs. (See the chapter in this volume on AIAW.)

NASPE is a professional association of educators concerned and involved with sport and physical education. NASPE, with 25 divisions for various interest groups, provides leadership development, expansion of selected sport opportunities and competitions, consultation, publications, conferences and conventions, research and a public information program. Recent accomplishments include completion of a position paper on middle school physical education, continuing work on revising standards for physical education programs in colleges, elementary and secondary schools, and compilation of selected program ideas for personalized learning in physical education. The National Council of State High School Coaches Associations (NCSHSCA) and the National Council of Secondary School Athletic Directors (NCSSAD) are two major structures within NASPE which provide programs and services to their respective memberships; NASPE also currently sponsors the National Badminton Championships for men and women.

NDA promotes the development of sound policies for dance in education through conference and convention programs, special projects and publications. As a member of the Forum of National Dance Associations, NDA cooperates with other dance groups. NDA is a professional association representing dance educators at the national level and works jointly on special projects with the Alliance for Arts Education and the National Committee for Arts for the Handicapped.

Three AAHPER sub-groups have institutional members in contrast to the individual members:

- Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW),
- National Council of State High School Coaches Associations (NCSHSCA), and
- National Council of Secondary School Athletic Directors (NCSSAD).

The governing bodies of AAHPER are the Alliance Assembly (an elected body of nearly 350 members) which meets once a year, and the Board of Governors (19 elected members) which meets three times each year. Both the Assembly and the Board also meet at AAHPER's annual national convention. This convention is held on a rotating basis with one of the six AAHPER district conventions.

Policies of the AAHPER Board of Governors are carried out by a professional staff of approximately 80 persons headed by an Executive Director. Currently, AAHPER is located within the National Education Association Building in Washington, D. C.; however, plans are being made to establish a separate center for AAHPER headquarters, archives, a museum, and an information clearinghouse.

AAHPER publishes four regular periodicals available to individual members and to organization subscribers. In addition, 17 special interest area newsletters, films, and more than 250 publications (including rule books, manuals and guides) are prepared by AAHPER. Other services provided by AAHPER to its member Associations include program consulting, sponsoring of workshops and conferences, and support of professional programs and special projects sponsored by members, e.g., AAHPER's program for the handicapped. Since the early 1960s, the Unit on Programs for the Handicapped has coordinated AAHPER activities related to physical education and recreational programming for the handicapped. Services provided include publication of the newsletter *Challenge* and of needed materials each year. Additionally, the development of IRUC (Information and Research Utilization Center) as an important source of information on physical education and recreation for the handicapped.

Individual membership dues to AAHPER

range from $12.50 per year for students to $25.00 per year for professionals. For the fiscal year ending May 31, 1975, AAHPER's expenses were $3.2 million. Those costs exceeded income from membership dues by over $1.5 million. This differential was covered by net income from business operations associated with activities such as publications and convention advertising. The financial operating statement in Exhibit I represents the sources and uses of AAHPER income for the two fiscal years ending 1974 and 1975.

AAHPER expenditures, even in its projects and grants, are only peripherally related to sports. They deal specifically with general physical education programs, workshops, or clinics on safety, etc., even though some grant awards are provided by sports organizations. Hence, it would be inappropriate to categorize AAHPER expenditures into sports-related classifications.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

AAHPER is an organization of organizations concerned with health, physical education and recreation. Its role is one of support in a myriad of programs which its members offer. As an entity AAHPER conducts no athletic competitions of its own; it has no sports facilities, nor does it focus on world class athletics per se. Although the services that AAHPER provides do contribute toward programs concerned with competition, particularly in the areas of research, training and coaching, the AAHPER philosophy, as expressed by some elements of the Alliance, conflict with the philosophies of some of the organizations solely devoted to competitive sport. AAHPER seeks to act as a catalyst to bring all sports organizations together to run programs jointly with AAHPER or with each other, and to provide communication among all groups concerned with sports, from the grass roots level of the Little League to the elite level of the national governing bodies. Therefore, this national alliance of associations promotes the development of individuals and groups in all areas of athletics. Its effect on sports is significant although subtle; indeed, AAHPER's profile is characterized by its officials as extremely "low profile" and "lacking in visibility"—factors which, to AAHPER, are unimportant in comparison to its achievements.

EXHIBIT I

AAHPER Balance Sheet

Assets	*Latest Year FY 1974-75*	*Previous Year FY 1973-74*
Cash	$ 128,486	$ 143,836
Net Accounts Receivable (from bookstores, members, etc.)	328,132	246,305
Publications on Hand	322,166	299,624
Investments	102,794	96,375
Land and Improvements	157,504	157,504
Total Assets	$1,039,082	$ 943,644

Liabilities and Net Worth		
Accounts Payable	$ 250,479	$ 131,749
Accrued Payroll and Annual Leave	97,504	122,075
Loan from NEA	–	218,132
Mortgage	16,005	28,638
Restricted grants not yet expended	5,000	57,225
Escrow Funds	4,649	–
Net Worth (Fund Balances)	665,445	385,825
Total Liabilities and Net Worth	$1,039,082	$ 943,644

AAHPER Financial Operating Statement

Income	*Latest Year FY 1974-75*	*Previous Year FY 1973-74*
Memberships	$1,197,580	$1,032,563
Contributions	1,035	–
Convention	172,160	156,463
Publications	1,385,898	1,235,746
Professional Program Conferences	58,377	107,236
Special Projects	449,672	307,417
Interest	3,759	3,001
Receipts into Reserve Fund/Receipts from Life Members	2,970	9,603
JOURNAL Advertising	153,638	148,686
Indirect Cost Receipts	58,433	20,938
Miscellaneous	38,671	11,267
Total Income	$3,522,193	$3,032,920

Expenses		
Membership Records and Promotion	$ 199,703	$ 153,612
Periodicals	370,850	341,619
Convention	92,877	118,109
Publications Production and Distribution	938,747	911,606
Professional Program	588,683	516,940
Projects and Grants	424,742	300,883
Board of Governors	19,674	36,035
Administrative Support	236,705	274,455
General Operating Expenses	163,134	166,761
Professional Complex	5,174	5,365
Distribution to District and State Associations	58,118	58,811
Alliance Program	133,368	81,460
Miscellaneous	10,798	–
Total Expenses	$3,242,573	$2,965,656
Excess Income Over Expenses	279,620	67,264
Net Worth Brought Forward	385,825	318,561
New Net Worth	$ 665,455	$ 385,825

ASSOCIATION FOR INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS FOR WOMEN

OVERVIEW

The Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) was formally organized in the 1971-72 school year. It replaced the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW) which had been organized in 1967 by the Division for Girls and Women's Sports (DGWS) of the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER). Between 1971 and 1976, AIAW grew from 206 charter members to 791 active member institutions. Both two- and four-year institutions are included in this membership.

In its first year AIAW sponsored national championships in seven sports. In 1977 it will offer 19 championships in 12 different sports. Two of these will be co-sponsored with other governing groups, the United States Field Hockey Association and the Amateur Softball Association. These co-sponsorships reflect AIAW's belief that governing organizations respectful of each other's needs and abilities can cooperate in endeavors to the benefit of the athletes involved.

In addition to conducting national championships, AIAW provides such supplementary services to its member schools as workshops and clinics. The first workshop, held in 1975, was attended by approximately 200 persons interested in athletic administration. In the planning stage are workshops for leadership training of student-athletes and for institutional administrators on the problems, issues and challenges in athletics today.

In testimony to the Commission, AIAW President N. Peg Burke characterized AIAW's philosophy and perception of its responsibilities thus:

> "Given the timing of its organizational emergence, AIAW is . . . mindful of our responsibility to assist in the achievement of equal opportunities for girls and women. Since sports and sports organizations are generally of more interest to the general public and the media than most other aspects of the educational curricula, we feel an obligation to speak out on behalf of equal opportunities for girls and women not only in sport but in all aspects of the educational experience. . . .
>
> "We also appreciate and share this Commission's conviction that the individual athlete should be our primary concern, and as an organization, we try to give more than lip-service to this concept . . . we attempt to minimize the control exerted over the lives of our athletes and we are beginning to involve them in the governance process."

AIAW's stated goals and objectives are:

- —To foster broad programs of women's intercollegiate athletics which are consistent with the educational objectives of member schools;
- —To assist member schools to extend and enrich their program of intercollegiate athletics for women;
- —To stimulate the development of quality leadership among persons responsible for women's intercollegiate athletic programs;
- —To encourage excellence in performance of participants in women's intercollegiate athletics;

–To maintain the spirit of play within competitive sport events so that the concomitant educational values of such an experience are emphasized;

–To increase public understanding and appreciation of the importance and value of sports and athletics as they contribute to the enrichment of the life of the woman;

–To encourage and facilitate research on the effects of intercollegiate athletic women and to disseminate the findings;

–To further the continual evaluation of standards and policies for participants and programs;

–To produce and distribute such materials as will be of assistance to persons in the development and improvement of intercollegiate programs;

–To hold national championships and to sponsor conferences, institutes, and meetings which will meet the needs of individuals in member schools;

–To cooperate with other professional groups of similar interests for the ultimate development of sports programs and opportunities for women;

–To provide direction and maintain a relationship with AIAW regional organizations; and

–To conduct such other activities as shall be approved by the governing body of the Association.

ORGANIZATION

Structure

AIAW is a unit of the National Association for Girls and Women in Sport (NAGWS) which, in turn, is a part of the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER). AIAW therefore differs from the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) and National Association for Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) in that it has its genesis in an educational organization. Another significant difference is that AIAW's initial interest covered a broad range of sports, while the NAIA and NCAA sprang from groups with a single sport focus, basketball and football respectively.

AIAW memberships are institutional. Duly authorized representatives of member institutions determine the policies and regulations of the organization and elect the members of the Executive Committee and Executive Board. AIAW is divided into nine regions, each of which elects a member to the Executive Board.

For competitive purposes, AIAW is divided into the same nine regions (ten in two sports) and into three divisions: Large four-year institutions,[1] small four-year institutions, and junior/community college institutions.

Many states have established regional AIAW organizations both for governance and competitive purposes. While AIAW has no official tie to these state organizations, they function within the nine AIAW regions and many have endorsed AIAW policies and regulations or adopted similar ones. In addition, although not required to do so by AIAW, many state organizations have initiated state level competitions as a step in the route to regional and national championship competition.

The AIAW Executive Board has two planned meetings per year (Spring and Fall) and another prior to the Delegate Assembly. The Executive Board is elected by representatives to the Delegate Assembly. Members of the Board include the President, President-Elect, Past President, Commissioner of National Championships, Commissioner of small college championships, Commissioner of junior/community college championships, Chairperson of Ethics and Eligibility Committee, and Treasurer. In addition, each of the nine regions sends one representative to the Board and one delegate each is elected from the large college division, the small college division, and the Junior College/Community College (JC/CC) division. Finally, one student representative is elected by the membership of the Delegate Assembly. The President of NAGWS also sits on the AIAW Executive Board.

Between Board meetings an Executive Committee, composed of the first eight officers listed above, conducts AIAW business. The following charts depicts AIAW's structure.

Membership

AIAW membership is open to any college, university and junior/community college which is an accredited institution of higher learning, is a member of the appropriate regional AIAW organization, and supports AIAW policies, Constitution, and Bylaws.

There are three classes of membership. Active members (791 as of November 19, 1976) pay annual membership fees on the following basis: large college (enrollment of more than 3,000 full-time undergraduate women)–$500; small college (enrollment of 3,000 and under full-time undergraduate women)–$350; and junior/com-

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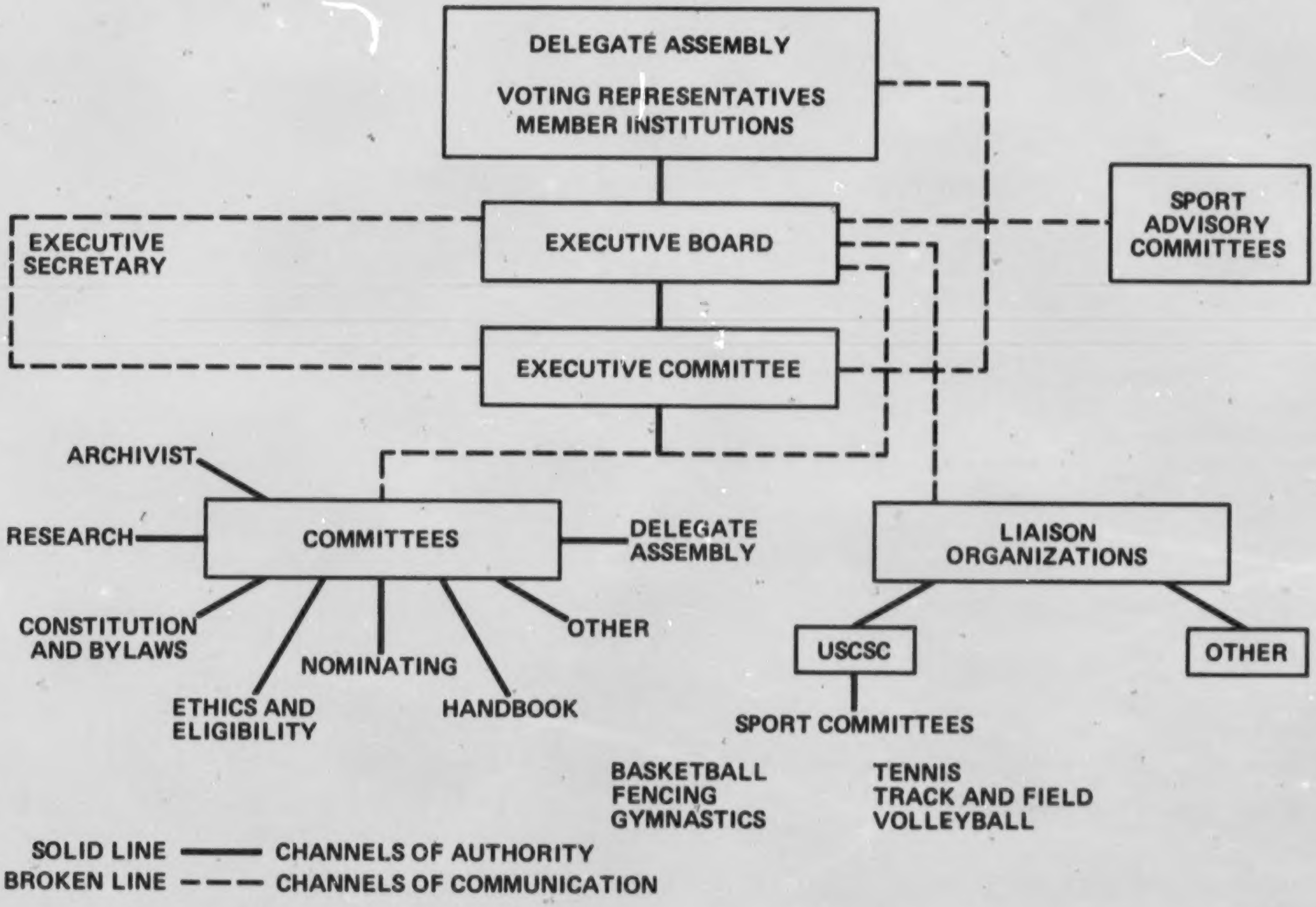
[1] Four-year institutions with 3,000 or more full-time undergraduate college women are classified as large.

GENERAL ORGANIZATION CHART

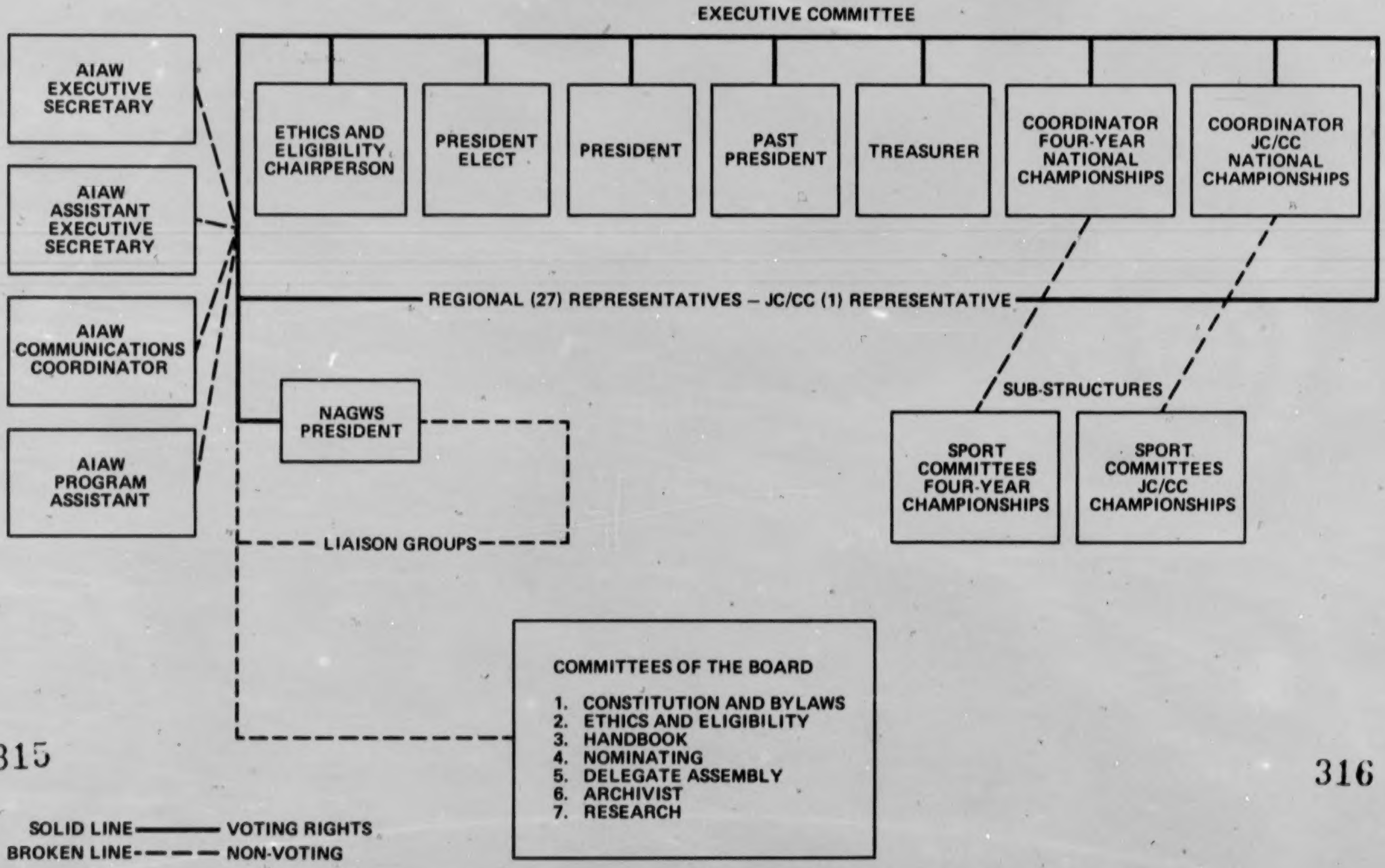
AIAW


DELEGATE ASSEMBLY
VOTING REPRESENTATIVES
MEMBER INSTITUTIONS
EXECUTIVE BOARD
EXECUTIVE SECRETARY
SPORT ADVISORY COMMITTEES
EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
ARCHIVIST
RESEARCH
COMMITTEES
DELEGATE ASSEMBLY
CONSTITUTION AND BYLAWS
ETHICS AND ELIGIBILITY
NOMINATING
HANDBOOK
OTHER
LIAISON ORGANIZATIONS
USCSC
OTHER
SPORT COMMITTEES
BASKETBALL
FENCING
GYMNASTICS
TENNIS
TRACK AND FIELD
VOLLEYBALL
SOLID LINE —— CHANNELS OF AUTHORITY
BROKEN LINE – – – CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION

ASSOCIATION FOR INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS FOR WOMEN

LINE STAFF ORGANIZATIONAL CHART

EXECUTIVE BOARD


EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
AIAW EXECUTIVE SECRETARY
AIAW ASSISTANT EXECUTIVE SECRETARY
AIAW COMMUNICATIONS COORDINATOR
AIAW PROGRAM ASSISTANT
ETHICS AND ELIGIBILITY CHAIRPERSON
PRESIDENT ELECT
PRESIDENT
PAST PRESIDENT
TREASURER
COORDINATOR FOUR-YEAR NATIONAL CHAMPIONSHIPS
COORDINATOR JC/CC NATIONAL CHAMPIONSHIPS
REGIONAL (27) REPRESENTATIVES – JC/CC (1) REPRESENTATIVE
NAGWS PRESIDENT
LIAISON GROUPS
SUB-STRUCTURES
SPORT COMMITTEES FOUR-YEAR CHAMPIONSHIPS
SPORT COMMITTEES JC/CC CHAMPIONSHIPS
COMMITTEES OF THE BOARD
1. CONSTITUTION AND BYLAWS
2. ETHICS AND ELIGIBILITY
3. HANDBOOK
4. NOMINATING
5. DELEGATE ASSEMBLY
6. ARCHIVIST
7. RESEARCH
SOLID LINE — VOTING RIGHTS
BROKEN LINE – – – NON-VOTING

munity college – $200. Associate members pay a $100 fee, affiliate members pay $50, and subscription members are charged $25 annually.

Associate members are educational institutions with voice but no vote in AIAW affairs. They receive AIAW program and policy information, yet do not pay full dues and their students are not eligible to participate in the AIAW National Championships. Affiliates include organizations, such as the National Organization for Women (NOW), wishing to be kept informed of AIAW activities; they are not necessarily educational groups.

Athlete Representation

AIAW's 1974 position paper on intercollegiate athletics for women stated that: "The participants in athletic programs, including players, coaches, and support personnel, should have access to and representation on the policy making group on campus and in sport governing organizations." At the 1976 Delegate Assembly, this statement formed the basis for actions involving students in organizational governance through representation, including voting rights, on the Executive Board; representation, including voting rights, on the Appeals Board Panel; and representation, including voting rights, on each sport committee for each division. Member institutions also are formally encouraged by Delegate Assembly Resolution to include students in their respective delegations.

AIAW President Burke testified before the Commission that even minimal student representation is significant "because, without regard to the degree of their voting strength, the mere presence of athletes in a sports governing group ensures that decisions regarding their future will not be made in a casual manner. While abdication of the athletic policy-making role in favor of student athletes would be irresponsible both because of their relative transience and because theirs is the perspective only of the competitor, disallowance of meaningful athlete input is equally unacceptable because it is a prostitution of the democratic concept."

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER)

As noted earlier, AIAW is a unit of the National Association for Girls and Women in Sport (NAGWS), which is one of seven association members of AAHPER. Other AAHPER members are the American Association for Leisure and Recreation Services, the American School and Community Safety Association, the Association for the Advancement of Health Education, the Association for Research Administration and Professional Councils and Societies, the National Association for Sport and Physical Education, and the National Dance Association. (See AAHPER Report, Volume II.)

Two structures in addition to AIAW have institutional membership in AAHPER: the National Council of State High School Coaches Associations and the National Council of Secondary School Athletic Directors.

The President of AIAW is a voting member of the NAGWS Executive Board and the President of NAGWS is a member of the AAHPER Board of Directors. AIAW uses NAGWS rules of competition and, when feasible, NAGWS-rated officials. AIAW policies and activites must be consistent with those of AAHPER, and AIAW submits annual reports (past and proposed activities and budget) to NAGWS and AAHPER.

AAHPER is a Group B member of the U. S. Olympic Committee. This is the only structural connection between AIAW and the USOC; however, in 1976 several AIAW National Championships were used as qualifiers for the Olympic Trials or as the Olympic Trials themselves in a few select sports. Currently, AIAW is represented in most national governing bodies in which it conducts programs through AAHPER/NAGWS. However, the franchise holder for basketball (ABAUSA) has requested affiliation directly with AIAW rather than through AAHPER or NAGWS. Several other governing bodies have indicated an interest in having AIAW represented directly in their organizations instead of through the AAHPER superstructure. At present, however, AIAW representatives are found in only one NGB, ABAUSA.

Collegiate Organizations

AIAW has formed liaison committees with the NCAA, NJCAA and NAIA to study differences in eligibility standards and other matters arising from the fact that an institution may belong to both AIAW and one or more of the other organizations as well. An AIAW representative sits on the Executive Committee of the U. S. Collegiate Sports Council (USCSC) while members of the USCSC Games Committees are in communication with the AIAW Executive Board.

Open conflict between the AIAW and NCAA began at the 1975 NCAA Annual Convention, where a surprise proposal came up for consideration. The proposal suggested NCAA involvement in the governance of women's intercollegiate sports programs, an area about which the NCAA had never been particularly concerned. While the NCAA discussed this motion, the AIAW delegates, who were holding their Annual Meeting in Texas, were informed of the action going on at the NCAA convention in Washington, D.C. The AIAW delegates were convinced that their fellow athletic administrators, many employed by the same educational institutions, were about to approve the absorption of women's collegiate sports by the NCAA without having consulted the women's organization. This action by the NCAA, if passed and implemented, would have drastically affected the future of women's athletics. It would have determined whether women's athletics went the way of the men's or had a chance to evolve in its own fashion.

The AIAW delegates quickly called their respective school representatives at the NCAA Convention and presented their position on the issue. As a result, a majority of the NCAA members voted to defeat the proposal.

Following this occurrence the two organizations agreed to form a joint committee to consider the matter further. NCAA representatives on the committee believed that women's programs should be run by the NCAA, while the AIAW members felt that the women should conduct their own programs.

In 1975 the NCAA's legal counsel advised the NCAA that it is constitutionally bound to offer athletic programs for women even though it has never done so in the past and does not do so presently. If a majority of NCAA member institutions accept this advice, all NCAA members may be forced to choose between the AIAW and the NCAA as the controlling body for women's sports on their campuses. The voting representatives of AIAW member institutions would prefer—for the present—that AIAW continue to serve women athletes exclusively and the NCAA continue to serve only men. However, AIAW recognizes the potential need for institutions to belong to one organization to govern both men's and women's athletics. AIAW representatives to the NCAA/AIAW joint committee have suggested possible alternative structures for such an organization, as well as alternatives for alliances between existing organizations. All of these AIAW proposals assure the equal voice of men and women within the proposed structures. However, at present, relations between the two organizations are somewhat strained and discussions of the Joint Committee have ceased, at least temporarily, due to current court proceedings involving the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) and the NCAA (see NCAA report)[2] concerning HEW's implementation regulations for Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972. AIAW has recently had its request approved to join the suit as a party defendant with HEW, in support of the regulations' provisions.

AIAW RULES AND THEIR EFFECT ON COMPETITION

The high priority which AIAW accords the rights and opportunities of athletes is reflected in the statement on the first page of the AIAW Handbook, that "Colleges and universities are encouraged actively to support the AIAW through membership if (1) they subscribe to the belief that the focus of women's intercollegiate athletics should remain on the *individual participant* in the primary role as college student..." (emphasis added). One of the primary purposes set out in the AIAW Constitution is "To assist member schools in extending and enriching their programs of intercollegiate athletics for women based upon the needs, interests, and capacities of the individual student." And the first statement in a May 1974 organizational position paper on intercollegiate athletics for women is: "The enrichment of the life of the participant is the focus and reason for the existence of any athletic program. All decisions should be made with this fact in mind."

In 1976 the AIAW Delegate Assembly approved the concept that AIAW should impose only those regulations necessary to guarantee fair competition for all, while protecting the health and safety of all participants, and ensuring equal opportunity for women students. This principle of minimal control is reflected in the following ways.

Eligibility

The AIAW rule concerning time periods within which an athlete is eligible for competition requires only that a student make "normal progress" toward completion of a first undergraduate degree, as determined by the individual institution. The student is limited to four intercollegiate years of play.[3] NCAA rules, however, require that an athlete complete his seasons of play within five calendar years from the date of his initial registration, and the NAIA requires compliance within five years of college attendance. Thus, the AIAW student may feel free to attend college at her own pace and still maintain eligibility to compete in AIAW national competitions.

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[2] NCAA v. David Mathews, Civil Action No. 76-32-C2 USDC, District of Kansas, (1976).

[3] AIAW Handbook, 1976-1977, p. 58.

Injured Athlete Regulation

Under AIAW's injured athlete regulation, a student suffering a disabling injury may have taken part in one-quarter of the season without losing a year of eligibility. Under the regulations of some other college/university organizations, an athlete could lose a season's eligibility if he or she was injured on the first day of the season.

Transfer Policy

Although an AIAW athlete is ineligible for financial aid during her first year at a new institution, she nevertheless is immediately eligible to compete. The rationale for this distinction, according to AIAW President Burke, is that while it appears wise to prevent schools with more financial aid from "raiding" those with less or none, there is no adequate justification for denying a duly qualified student a program offered by an institution. The NCAA, on the other hand, requires an athlete to refrain from playing in all competition for one year, while NAIA has an 18-week waiting period, whether or not the athlete receives financial aid.

Amateur Status

AIAW is unique in its treatment of this subject. While AIAW prohibits an athlete from receiving compensation or agreeing to receive payment for participation in an athletic event, she is permitted to receive actual expense money plus awards not to exceed $1,000 per year. An athlete also may receive officiating or coaching fees in excess of actual expenses. Such money has no effect on eligibility for competition in AIAW events, although it may jeopardize amateur standing for other competition regulated by the international federations and national governing bodies.[4] In contrast, the NCAA prohibits broken-time payments and receipt of awards the value of which exceeds $200 per year.

Liberal Appeal System

AIAW has developed and implemented a comprehensive appeals policy, applicable to all student-athletes and member institutions. All rulings affecting participation or financial aid are subject to appeal. For example, between 1974 and 1976 AIAW considered more than fifty appeals dealing with the restriction upon financial aid to transferring students. Reasons for requesting leniency ranged from the changing educational goals of student-athletes which could best be met at a new institution to parents or husbands moving from one locale to another to financial needs. Each appeal was considered on its individual merits and approximately two-thirds were granted.

Similarly, in the area of international participation, AIAW's rules reflect a conscious effort to assist rather than impede competitive opportunities. "When participation on an international team affects the student's eligibility for AIAW events, the student may appeal to the Ethics and Eligibility Committee for leniency. The appeal cases will be considered individually."[5] In 1975-76 appeals were made by swimmers, basketball players and gymnasts, based on the inability to maintain normal progress due to international competition. No such appeal by a competitor was turned down. (This policy has been in effect since AIAW's inception and may have influenced an NAIA decision in 1974 to drop the requirement that the NAIA Executive Committee approve all international competition. The NCAA and NJCAA, however, both still require that athletes obtain their Associations' approval for many non-collegiate competitions).

Although AIAW's appeals procedure permits full opportunity for notice, hearing and a reasoned decision, there is an additional clearly defined opportunity to seek mitigation of sanctions. After the right of appeal to the Ethics and Eligibility Committee has been exhausted, an athlete may submit an appeal through the Ethics and Eligibility Committee to the AIAW Executive Board for a final decision. As AIAW President Burke states, "This mitigation provision is a further attempt to ensure that justice is tempered with mercy in light of the power that a governing organization possesses over athletes in human terms."

Lack of a Tainting Clause

AIAW has no "tainting" or "contamination" clause precluding open competition among amateurs and professionals, nor is AIAW approval required for participation in outside competition. In developing a concept of amateurism, AIAW has sought to maximize opportunities for participation by women athletes and to retain harmonious relations with other amateur sports governing organizations.

AIAW Scholarship Policy

The predecessor of AIAW, the CIAW, adopted a policy which prohibited member institutions from issuing athletic scholarships. This group attributed many of the abuses in the men's collegiate athletic program to the NCAA scholarship policy. CIAW felt the policy de-emphasized the educational aspect of college, and in effect, brought "hired guns" to college sports.

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[4] AIAW Handbook, 1976-1977, p. 56.

[5] AIAW Handbook, 1976-1977, p. 61.

In 1973 this group, now the AIAW, was threatened by legal action in a suit brought by Marymount College of Florida, under the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution which insures equal protection under the law. (See chapter on Athletes' Rights in Volumn I of this report). Although this case never reached courtroom confrontation, it was responsible for changing the scholarship rule to that which now exists.

AIAW now has a financial-aid policy based on athletic ability. An AIAW institution may provide only tuition, fees, room and board. However, an AIAW student may supplement this sum from outside sources. NCAA student/athletes, on the other hand, are prohibited from receiving additional income. As mentioned earlier, an AIAW student may accept 1,000 worth of prizes per year without losing her eligibility. Also, a school may provide funds for an enrolled AIAW student/athlete to attend a sports camp.

Because the scholarship program is in the developmental state, AIAW policy makers are reviewing alternate concepts for providing student/athletes with financial assistance. The current position of many member institutions, which is scheduled to be presented for approval at the next annual AIAW convention, combines two elements of present NCAA policy. This proposal recommends that awards of tuition and fees be made to talented athletes without regard to need, a policy which holds in NCAA Division I and II schools. All additional money must be granted on the basis of need (which is the sole basis of NCAA Division III scholarships). In this way, the AIAW feels it could provide needed financial assistance while maintaining an emphasis on education.

As noted, there are significant differences in the regulations that govern women (AIAW) and men (NCAA) who participate in athletic programs in the same institution. There seems to be no reasonable basis for the disparity that exists, for example, in the differing amonts of money men and women may receive without losing their eligibility status, or in the varying time periods within which athletes are eligible for competition. It is conceivable that an NCAA athlete might request a given institution (holding membership in both AIAW and NCAA) to permit him to receive awards up to $1,000 or play in NCAA competition six calendar years from the date of his initial registration.

As pointed out elsewhere in this report (see the Volume I chapter on Women in Sports), the amateur athletic environment is in the process of significant change. The Commission is aware of no specific legal or administrative challenge to the apparent inequities that exist with regard to the separate sets of eligibility rules which govern men's and women's sports participation. It is the Commission's opinion, however, that given the current environment, such a challenge is likely to occur in the near future. The organizations and institutions involved (such as AIAW, NCAA and NAIA member schools or the courts) will then have to address the question whether or not a common set of eligibility rules applicable to both men and women is required as a matter of law, equity and/or practicality.

RESOURCES

Personnel

AIAW national headquarters (located with AAPHER headquarters) in Washington is staffed by a full-time, paid Executive Secretary, an Assistant Secretary, a Program Assistant and a NAGWS Program Assistant.

Facilities

Since most AIAW member institutions are coeducational, access to facilities is often a problem. In sports such as field hockey or soccer, men's and women's teams often must share one or two playing fields. Similar problems arise in sharing pools and gymnasiums. In general, although conditions are improving, AIAW athletes all too often suffer second-class citizen status when it comes to being able to use athletic facilities at convenient playing/training times.

Finance/Funding

AIAW, reflecting the general state of affairs in women's athletics in this country, is the most poorly endowed of the multi-sport organizations directly involved in amateur athletics at the college level. As shown in the following table, its income for 1975 was just over $105,000, $94,000 of which came from membership dues. As would be expected of an organization of this size, virtually all of its expenses, $117,000 of about $120,000, must be classified as administrative—salaries and travel.

With such limited funds, AIAW is restricted to an advisory or facilitating role in monitoring activities of the member institutions. Although this is consistent with the role it desires to play in intercollegiate athletics, the general lack of monies also means that there are no funds available to encourage development.

Championships in existing sports must be self-sustaining or seek subsidies from outside sources. All championships presently are sponsored by a member institution. AIAW estimates the total cost of staging these events to be about $50,000, about half of which is spent on basketball. AIAW's share of these events was less than $2,000, a striking contrast to the $2,000,000 the NCAA received as net revenues for its basketball championships. However, as women's sports become more and more popular in the U. S., it is reasonable to expect that attendance (and gate receipts) will increase and that television contracts will be realized. AIAW recently negotiated a contract for television rights to women's competitions and has developed a plan to disburse the net revenues to member institutions.

The following financial statement shows AIAW revenue and expenditures for the fiscal year ending May 31, 1975.

AIAW Income and Expenditures,
Fiscal Year Ending May 31, 1975

Balance: As of June 1, 1975		$13,778.48
INCOME		
Alliance Allocation		7,413.00
Membership Dues		94,160.00
Delegate Assembly		2,072.59
National Championships		1,899.04[1]
	TOTAL INCOME:	$105,569.54
EXPENDITURES		
Administration		
Executive Board		$10,632.81
Delegate Assembly		3,212.19
President		2,423.01
President-elect		936.66
Past President		1,277.00
Regional Representative		170.05
Junior College Representative		5.50
Commissioner National Championships		628.20
Other Officers		495.45
	SUB TOTAL:	$19,780.87
Championships		
Executive Board Representatives		$1,773.08
National Sports Committee Chairwoman		1,924.75
National Sports Committee Operations		506.15
Official Rules Interpreter		287.75
Awards Championships		2,369.21
Operations		640.68
	SUB TOTAL:	$7,501.62
Liaison		
Professional Liaison Meeting		$1,533.30
Representative to USCSC Executive Committee		1,392.13
USCSC Games Committees		1,181.32
	SUB TOTAL:	$4,106.75
Membership Services	SUB TOTAL:	6,642.56
Committee Meetings	SUB TOTAL:	5,244.13
Other Expenses	SUB TOTAL:	27,450.24[2]
AAHPER (contribution to overhead)	SUB TOTAL:	$18,768.83
Salaries/welfare benefits	SUB TOTAL:	26,502.47[3]
Staff travel	SUB TOTAL:	2,313.20
	TOTAL EXPENDITURES:	$119,348.02

DEVELOPMENT/COMPETITION

Believing that all sports are important and that each competitor properly feels her sport to be most important, AIAW has attempted to resist the labeling of sports as "major" or "minor" on the basis of their financial potential and/or spectator appeal. AIAW members have competitive programs in 22 sports, ranging from intramural through intercollegiate, regional and national competition. 1976-1977 National Championships sponsored by AIAW are as follows:

National Championships for all active AIAW members:
- Badminton
- Cross Country
- Golf
- Gymnastics
- Swimming and Diving
- Track and Field
- Skiing

National Large College Championships:
- Basketball
- Tennis
- Volleyball

National Small College Championships:
- Basketball
- Swimming and Diving
- Volleyball

National Junior/Community College Championships:
- Basketball
- Softball
- Tennis
- Volleyball

Co-Sponsored National Championships
- Field Hockey
- Softball

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[1] Profit for only 4 out of 6 championships showing profit was received prior to end of fiscal year—includes $217.96 total profit from 1975 Junior College/Community College Basketball championship.

[2] $21,766.77 in legal services.

[3] AAPHER and NAGWS staff work on AIAW projects charged to AIAW budget.

The table below indicates the numbers of AIAW member institutions (598 total responding) offering programs in various sports for 1975. Participant figures by sport are not currently available.

Sport	*Number of Institutions*	*% of Total Institutions Responding*
Basketball	448	74.9
Tennis	434	72.6
Volleyball	422	70.6
Softball	252	42.1
Swim/Diving	215	36.0
Field Hockey	210	35.1
Track/Field	205	34.3
Gymnastics	184	30.8
Golf	113	18.9
Badminton	72	12.0
Fencing	71	11.9
Lacrosse	60	10.0
Bowling	44	7.4
Skiing	32	5.4
Archery	27	4.5
Riflery	13	2.2
Squash	11	1.8
Crew	10	1.7
Riding	8	1.3
Synchro. Swim	4	.7
Soccer	3	.5
Cross Country	2	.3
Other	8	–

In 1974-75 AIAW member institutions numbered 615, with a total of 50,860 participants in sports programs. Institutions taking part in AIAW national championships numbered 438, with 2,350 women competing in these championships. Currently, 791 colleges and universities actively participate in AIAW programs. Total membership in the Association is more than 850 organizations.

As noted in the discussion of AIAW finances, there are no monies available for the funding of development programs from the national level. While the NCAA has recently instituted a policy of reimbursing member institutions for expenses incurred in transporting teams to NCAA National Championships (see chapter in this volume on the NCAA), AIAW members must fend for themselves in this regard.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The AIAW is the largest national organization conducting collegiate sports programs just for women. AIAW has formally been in existence since 1971. It has 791 active two- and four-year member institutions (with over 50,000 individuals participating in the programs) and currently offers 19 national championships in 12 different sports (with approximately 3,000 women in these events).

This organization supports activities which are consistent with a philosophy based on the following principles:

- Intercollegiate athletics should be treated as educational activities, subject to the same standards and controls as other college-sponsored activities;
- Maximum responsibility for the conduct of intercollegiate athletic programs should be vested in each institution with recommendations to member institutions on policies and procedures;
- Active involvement of students should exist in the governance of their programs; and
- Therefore, AIAW voted to impose only those regulations necessary to guarantee the following:
  - Fair competition for all,
  - Protection of the health and safety of all participants, and
  - Equal opportunity for women students.

AIAW representatives who are athletes, coaches, administrators and teachers from member colleges and universities, are responsible for determining the specific policies which guide women's collegiate athletics in this country. To standardize activities in women's sports, AIAW has developed rules concerning, among other things, eligibility, extra-school competition, awarding of financial aid, and recruitment. These rules are at variance with the regulations of most other collegiate athletic institutions. The absorption of women's athletic programs by another national college/university athletic organization—without providing women an equal voice in the governance of such programs—would drastically and negatively affect the policies to which AIAW subscribes.

MILITARY

USA
USN
USAF
USMC

OVERVIEW

The Armed Forces have been providing troops with organized physical activities for several decades and in some cases for over a century. After World War II the four services individually set up national sports programs to direct recreation/sports activities at all levels (base, command, interservice, national and international).

The salient characteristics of military involvement in sports programs are that sports maintain troop fitness and morale and provide recreation for military dependents. The majority of activities are organized, funded and conducted at the base/installation level. Interbase, interservice and international competition are more selective; participation at the highest levels is offered only to a few.

The military generally has been successful in its attempts to increase sports participation. A wide variety of sports, facilities and programs are available to military personnel and their dependents.

The military also has been involved to a lesser extent in fielding athletes and providing training and competition opportunities for the elite athlete in national and international competition. Public Law 11, passed in 1955,[1] directs the Armed Services to support national and international athletic competition as part of the national interest. However, funding for these activities is small. The Interservice Sports Committee, set up to supervise these efforts, has no policy-making power and no facilities for training and competition. In addition, there is no office or individual at the Department of Defense (DOD) level charged with overseeing military sports programs or with setting policy for the four services.

Although common DOD policies exist with respect to physical fitness of the troops, each service establishes its own policy and runs its own recreational/intramural and organized sports programs. In fact, each base commander runs his own program, as is illustrated by the non-uniformity of many sports programs throughout each service. The national sports Office of any service (under the Special Services division) may coordinate activities, but does not set guidelines concerning sports to be offered, qualifications for administrative or coaching personnel, or allocation of funds.

Development of athletes per se is not part of the military mission. Therefore, when an elite athlete does emerge from a military sports program, it is very likely that: (1) he was an elite athlete before he entered the service, (2) he was able to develop his talents because of a special coach or trainer who happened to be available, or (3) he had performed well at the national level and therefore, was given sufficient time off from official duties to more fully develop his athletic skills.

At one time, before the end of the Selective Service System, the military provided many athletes for national and international competition. In 1964 20% of the athletes on the U. S. Olympic team were in the military. On the whole these were college graduates who entered the service as officers or enlisted men. In 1976 only 6% of U. S. Olympic team members were military athletes. The difference in these figures, indicative of the general downward trend in military sports participation over the past twelve years, points to two important characteristics of today's military sports programs: 1) participants in a volunteer service generally are not college graduates, and 2) due to both budgetary constraints and concern over Congressional and public criticism, the military as a whole is not currently providing a program to support elite athletes.

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[1] Public Law 11, 69 Stat. 11, March 14, 1955 (recodified as 10 U.S.C. 717).

The military academies at which sport is seen as part of an overall program to produce well-rounded, capable career officers also develop athletes. Funding for intercollegiate competition and training at the academies is dependent upon gate receipts and private donations, whereas funding for physical education and intramural programs is provided through public appropriations.

The military does support some elite training and has proved that it can be successful when special programs are established. For example, the Army has two permanent training centers for two Olympic sports, pentathlon and shooting. The Army also was able to develop one Olympic sport from scratch, team handball, and provide a majority of players for the 1972 team in Munich. Army support for the program has since waned, however.

Military facilities for sports, transportation and housing are vast and are available to military personnel largely for the asking. In some cases an officer or a civilian working for the military is involved with a civilian sports program, and military facilities can be made available, but regulations prohibit general use by the public. The logistics of elite competition (timing, location, equipment requirements, etc.) normally dictate that the military athlete use commercial, rather than military air transport. The civilian athlete's opportunity to utilize military air transport is virtually non-existent.

There seems to be great potential for the military to expand its contribution to the country's national and international athletic efforts. In general, the military's attitude is favorable in this regard. However, in the absence of Presidential or Secretary of Defense interest and encouragement or a clear statement of Congressional support (preferably, all of the above) little movement to this end should be expected.

ORGANIZATION

Administration

A national sports director, located within the Special Services or Morale division of each branch of the military, oversees and coordinates the various sports programs for that branch. However, planning of recreational and intramural programs below the interservice, national and international levels is left to the discretion of each base/installation commander.

Assignments to duty in Special Services, whether as sports directors or as athletic directors at the base level, usually depend on availability, interest and background in recreation and sports. Directors may be either military or civilian personnel.

At the interservice level and above, administration of competition, training and travel of teams is handled by the Interservice Sports Committee (ISC), composed of one representative from each service. Created in 1968 by a Defense Department Directive (1330.4) concerning military participation in national and international competition, the ISC is responsible for overall management and operations of competition preparation but has no authority to set policy. The committee reports to the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Public Affairs).

Goals and Objectives

Although stated in different ways, all four of the services have a similar goal in providing sports programs for service personnel and their dependents: to provide maximum participation in a well-balanced sports program. Participation is voluntary, but widely encouraged to supplement duty-hour programs designed to promote physical and mental fitness, "esprit de corps" and leadership. Development of athletes for international competition is not part of the military mission.

Relationship to National Sports Organizations

The Armed Services send representatives to both the U. S. Olympic Committee (USOC) and the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU). In addition, the national sports office in each of the services maintains liaison with the various national governing bodies (NGBs) of sports in which they have a significant number of participants.

Relationship to International Sports Groups

Each service is represented on the U. S. delegation to CISM (Counsil International du Sport Militaire), the international military games organization. The four ISC members usually are designated as the U. S. delegation.

CISM was founded in 1948. The United States joined in 1951. CISM's stated purpose is the "encouragement of military sports and the development of friendly relations between Armed Forces of the various countries." Current membership is approximately 68 nations.

For all other international competitions, the NGB for each sport coordinates military liaison, if necessary.

FINANCES

Department of Defense (DOD)

On March 14, 1955, Congress authorized in Public Law 11 a ceiling of $800,000[2] in appropriated funds per quadrennial to be spent by all four services and the military reserves on participation in national and international competition. This dollar amount remains constant despite increased costs of fielding, training and transporting athletes. Funding for all sports programs comes from two basic sources:

- –Appropriated funds (line-item appropriations in the annual budget of the Armed Forces); and
- –Non-appropriated funds (profits from internally managed service operations such as movies and post exchanges).

At the beginning of each quadrennial, the ISC determines the maximum amount of appropriated funds each branch of the service may spend on national and international training and competition within the $800,000 limit. The ISC also submits for consideration to each service non-appropriated funding requirements for supplementary support. Each service sets aside funds within the general budget of the department that covers sports (e.g. in the Army the Adjutant General has final budget approval for spending under the PL 11 mandate). It is important to remember that the $800,000 is a ceiling; the services are not required to spend the total amount.

For Quadrennial 1976-1979 the following amounts have been authorized:

U. S. ARMY	$212,500
U. S. AIR FORCE	$212,500
U. S. NAVY	$136,000
U. S. MARINE CORPS	$119,000
RESERVES	$120,000
TOTAL	$800,000

In theory, any amount of non-appropriated funds may be used to supplement these appropriated monies. However, in practice non-appropriated funds which realistically could be allocated to this purpose are severely limited as they must be used at and for the benefit of the bases/commands in which they were generated.

Army

The Army Sports Office is allocated an annual budget of approximately $500,000. In FY '76 $275,000 was allocated from non-appropriated funds and $210,000 was allocated from appropriated funds, of which $70,000 was spent under the PL 11 mandate.

A separate appropriation is made annually from Congress to the Civilian Marksmanship Program within the office of the Secretary of the Army. The appropriation for fiscal year 1975 was approximately $400,000.

In fiscal year 1975 the Army spent approximately $32,700,000 at the base level as follows:

APPROPRIATED FUNDS

Program Support	*Construction*
$20,700,000	$4,900,000

NON-APPROPRIATED FUNDS

Program Support	*Construction*
$4,500,000	$2,600,000

These figures were consolidated from individual base data. They do not include salaries of military personnel or indirect costs such as general maintenance, utilities, etc. These figures also may include some recreational rather than purely athletic programs because methods of accounting and the definitions used to distinguish sports from recreational activities vary from base to base.

Air Force

The office of the Air Force Sports Director does not have a separate budget. Its funding is included in the budget of the Morale, Welfare and Recreation division office.

In FY '75 the Air Force spent approximately $30,680,724 at the base level, as follows:

APPROPRIATED FUNDS

Program Support	*Construction*
$17,486,000	$2,583,000

NON-APPROPRIATED FUNDS

Program Support	*Construction*
$4,163,000	$6,448,000

These figures also were consolidated from data supplied by the individual bases through the major commands and may include expenditures for general recreation.

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[2] In 1965 DOD asked Congress to amend PL 11 to increase the spending ceiling to $2 million. Although the House approved the amendment, it was tabled in the Senate Armed Services Committee.

Navy

In FY '75 the Navy spent approximately $16,754,000 on sports programs as follows:

ANNUAL COST OF NAVY SPORTS PROGRAM [3]
($ in thousands)

Type of Expenditures	*Appropriated Funds*	*Non-appropriated Funds*	*Total Funds*
Facilities Construction	$ 1,036 (one gym)	$ 6,955 (30 projects)	$ 7,991
Salaries (includes military)	1,738	2,170	3,908
Program Support [4]	2,646 (utilities, real property maint., equipment, supplies)	2,209 (equipment, maint., trans., awards, supp.)	4,855
	$ 5,420	$11,334	$16,754

[3] Financial data presented consolidated FY '75 construction costs and FY '76 operations costs.

[4] Figure listed for Appropriated Funds includes $40,000 (actual $) of Public Law II funds supporting national and international sports participation.

The Navy has stated that its accounting system is such that it is able to segregate costs and the above figures do not include expenditures for recreation.

In addition to the expenditures listed above, the Navy sports office spends approximately $250,000 annually to underwrite championship events.

Marine Corps

A portion of Marine Corps sports office costs are paid from appropriated funds, but there is no sports office budget. The non-appropriated funds budget for the sports office is approximately $185,000 and is used to defray costs of the All Marine Sports programs (regional and national).

In FY '75 the Marine Corps spent approximately $4,199,280 at the base level, as follows:

APPROPRIATED FUNDS

Program Support	*Construction*
-0-	$2,180,000

NON-APPROPRIATED FUNDS

Program Support	*Construction*
$909,000	$1,110,000

As in the case in the Army and Air Force, costs for recreational activities may be included.

DEVELOPMENT

Levels and Types of Competition

Basically, there are four levels of competition within the military sports program: base, intramural, all-service and departmental (interservice, national and international). The number and types of sports played within each service vary, but division championships are held in each service to choose teams for CISM competition.

Differences occur also in the emphasis put on certain sports. For example, the Army is the only service to mount a major effort in team handball through a program started by General William Westmoreland in the early 1970s (the program is now greatly reduced). The Air Force, unlike the other three services, does not participate at the interservice level in golf, tennis, or slow pitch softball because these do not lead to international Olympic competition. Base level and intramural competitions are organized by local commanders. Competition above this level is organized at the Command level and by the Interservice Sports Committee.

Outstanding athletes in the Olympic sports from all-service championships are invited to training camps from which an all-Armed Forces team is chosen for CISM and national team championships. Military athletes compete in world championships sponsored by international sports federations, the Olympic and Pan American Games, and CISM competitions.

Each year CISM championships are held in 19 Olympic sports and 7 non-Olympic Sports.[5] Some are military in nature such as orienteering, some are team sports such as soccer, and some are individual sports such as boxing. In 1976 the U. S. participated in 10 of the 26 events: judo, shooting, basketball, naval pentathlon, orienteering, track and field, parachuting, military pentathlon, modern pentathlon, and boxing.

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[5] Olympic sports: bobsled, judo, shooting, wrestling, basketball, track and field, modern pentathlon, boxing, weightlifting, soccer, fencing, equestrian, swimming, cycling, skiing, field hockey, volleyball, rowing and kayaking.

Non-Olympic sports: cross-country, international aeronautical military pentathlon, naval pentathlon, orienteering, parachuting, squash and military pentathlon.

The Elite Athlete

None of the services currently seek out elite athletes when recruiting new personnel. However, when an elite athlete is identified within the ranks, efforts are made to give the individual the opportunity to train while performing normal military duties. All of the services will assign elite athletes to special jobs or to special bases where training facilities and/or expert coaching are available, but the extent of this depends on the priority of the athlete's job category, the availability of job openings in preferred locations and availability of training sites on a base or in the local community near the base.

Billets in the Recruiting Commands have not been established for elite athletes. However, for special recruiting programs, such as teaching clinics for community groups, athletes may be assigned to the Recruiting Commands for specified periods of time (the Army allows a maximum of 30 days temporary duty with the Recruiting Command).

Training normally takes place during off-duty hours. However, athletes usually are given time off with pay (broken-time) to participate in trials for team selection as well as in national and international competition. When participating in such events they receive a per diem allowance. Transportation, whether commercial or military, is paid by the military. When military athletes take part in international competition other than CISM, normally the sponsoring organization (e.g., the USOC for the Olympics) pays for the athletes' expenses.

Barriers to Participation

1. The commander of each unit is responsible for the fitness of his troops. The extent to which organized recreational and intramural sports programs are used to achieve this is largely discretionary; no mandatory program of basic sports activities is set at the national level.

2. No provision is made through current funding levels (appropriated and non-appropriated) for increasing current programs or introducing new programs.

3. The emphasis on the participation in the CISM Games, which are held in various countries around the world, has placed a heavy burden on travel costs. As the number of events increase, and the distances needed to travel to these events increase, the military has limited the number of competitions in which it participates at the international level.

4. The Navy cites troop morale as a particular problem, in that non-athlete personnel must perform additional duties while athletes are away. The other services say that morale problems occur from time to time because of jealousy, but they feel it is not a major inhibitor to expansion of programs for elite athletes.

5. Athletes who are career military officers from time to time have complained of being overlooked for promotion. Some believe that absence from regular duties while competing is the reason. Whatever the reason in individual cases, there are few (if any) career opportunities in the service which are primarily related to athletics and/or conducive to the needs of elite, military career oriented athletes.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO CIVILIAN SPORTS PROGRAMS

The most prominent examples of military and civilian sports cooperation are the two Army training centers operated year-round for both military and civilian athletes: the U. S. Modern Pentathlon Training Center at Ft. Sam Houston, Texas, and the U. S. Army Marksmanship Unit at Fort Benning, Georgia. These are completely operated, staffed and funded by the Army and have proved highly successful in training international (military and civilian) competitors.

Another example within the Army is the Civilian Marksmanship Program, supervised by the National Board for the Promotion of Rifle Practice. The Board is appointed by the Secretary of the Army and its President is usually the Under Secretary of the Army. This program, which operates independently of the Army sports office, trains young athletes in marksmanship, sets up programs and competitions, loans out equipment and helps pay costs incurred traveling to and from international competitions.

Recruiting Commands for all four services use athletes and coaches to teach clinics or give demonstrations to civilian sports groups. The Army uses this method most often, averaging 500-600 clinics per year. Appearances by athletes at local recruiting centers occur when an athlete's schedule can be coordinated with local events, but on the whole the services do not use athletes on a full-time basis. Even with an extensive clinic program the Army does not allow an athlete to participate for more than 30 days at a time.

Requests coming from civilian sports organizations for military coaches and trainers to assist in training have occasionally been honored for short periods. Military personnel involved are assigned to temporary duty. Their expenses normally are paid by the military, or by the sponsoring organization in the case of international competition.

FACILITIES

Each service has facilities conforming to DOD directives. DOD specifies how they are to be constructed, but does not direct how many or what kind of facilities to provide, since those details depend upon local need and interest. Current DOD regulations for construction/renovation of athletic facilities do not specifically require Olympic standards to be met when constructing playing areas for Olympic sports. There seems to be little internal pressure to increase construction. Instead, multiple use is encouraged. For example, softball and baseball fields are used for flag football, while basketball courts also serve for tennis, badminton and volleyball.

Civilian access to military sports facilities on a regular basis is currently prohibited, except in those relatively infrequent cases where special requests have been granted by local commanders. Military regulations prohibit civilian access on the rationale that these facilities are built based on estimated military population levels and frequency of use. However, few military athletic facilities are used to full capacity.

Closed bases which have been declared as excess are turned over to General Services Administration (GSA), which in turn offers the property to other federal agencies, state and local public groups. Civilian groups may acquire such property through public auction, if no federal agency shows interest. However, some federal agencies, such as the Department of the Interior's Bureau of Outdoor Recreation and the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW), often take over these properties before they are declared surplus and make them available to communities who meet specific requirements.[6]

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The main characteristic of U. S. military involvement in sports is that the development of athletes, especially elite athletes, is not part of its mission. Nevertheless, the military has contributed to this nation's international sports effort over the years by training and selecting outstanding athletes to compete in the Olympic and Pan American Games and various international sport championships.

United States military participation reached its peak in the 1960s and has been declining steadily since. Although military athletes continue to compete in international arenas their numbers are far fewer.

Military sports programs are centered at the base/installation levels, with the select few competing at higher levels—interservice, national and international. Lower level competition is funded and programmed by local commanders, while interservice level and beyond is administered and funded at all-service level and by the Interservice Sports Committee.

Basic inhibitors to developing new programs and expanding present programs are the lack of funding at all levels, both appropriated and non-appropriated; the lack of emphasis on physical fitness and sports programs; and the lack of a central authority at the national level (DOD) to set policy and coordinate programs.

The Commission has made several recommendations on increasing military support of amateur athletics. These may be found in the chapter on the role of the military in Volume I of this report.

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[6] Each federal agency, along with the GSA, outlines specific requirements for acquiring surplus government property. For example, groups must be non-profit. Other requirements pertain to future use of the property (recreational, health or educational).

NATIONAL CATHOLIC YOUTH ORGANIZATION FEDERATION

OVERVIEW

The National Catholic Youth Organization Federation (NCYOF) was formed to assist the various Roman Catholic dioceses in their youth programs. It does not administer any national event other than the NCYOF biennial convention.

Each diocese runs its programs with private funds raised through membership and other local efforts. Sports programs form part of the overall youth services in most dioceses and are given varying degrees of priority.

ORGANIZATION

History

The Catholic Youth Organization had its beginnings in Chicago in 1930. Bishop Bernard Sheil founded the parish based program as a center for training elementary and high school youth in boxing and, later, in other sports. By 1937 the program was large enough to require a Catholic Youth Bureau in Washington, D.C., to centralize the activities.

The National Council on Catholic Youth (NCCY) was formed in 1940 and included a College and University Section and a Diocesan Section. The latter included a parish youth council affiliated with NCCY through respective dioceses. The first NCCY Convention was held in 1951.

In 1961, the NCCY Diocesan Section was renamed the CYO Federation, with Teenage and Adult Sections. The Youth Adult Section was disbanded in 1971. The Representative for Campus and Young Adult Ministry in the Department of Education, United States Catholic Conference (USCC) has assumed responsibility for organizing the Church's efforts on behalf of the disbanded Young Adult Section.

Structure

NCYOF is governed by an eight-member Executive Council. Four members elected by the Congress of the Federation at Biennial Conventions then appoint an additional four who have been nominated by member dioceses. Of the first four, the person elected to the Executive Council by the most votes is designated President of the Federation.

In order to qualify for nomination, a person must be no older than 18 or in the first year of college. Each member of the Council is elected for a two-year term.

At the national level there are three paid staff members coordinating NCYOF activities: the Director of the CYO, the Executive Secretary and the Specialist in Youth Activities. All three are employees of USCC and incorporate NCYOF activities into their other functions (e.g., liaison with other youth organizations such as the Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts) within the Youth Activities office.

Approximately four million youths are involved in NCYOF as members of a diocese. There are no individual NCYOF memberships. Approximately 85 dioceses (about half the number in the U.S.) belong to NCYOF. Membership fees are based on the population of each diocese, the maximum fee being $3,000 per diocese.

CYO goals and objectives are to encourage and support youth activities such as retreats, community service projects and athletic programs. NCYOF provides programming suggestions and resources for establishing local programs, such as coaches' certification guidelines.

Relationships to Other Organizations

NCYOF is a Group B member of the USOC and a member of the AAU.

DEVELOPMENT

All CYO programs are run at the local level. NCYOF is merely an advisory and services unit, not a coordinator or financer. Therefore, sports development is best explained through the example of one CYO athletic program at the diocesan level. The following information is from the Archdiocese of Washington, D.C., which also includes part of Northern Virginia and Southern Maryland.

Participation

Approximately 10,000 boys and girls participate in intramural activities while approximately 14,000 participate in varsity sports. The main barrier to increased participation is money. No public funds are used. However, athletic coordinators never deny anyone who wants to participate.

Youths are drawn to the programs through word of mouth—from parents, coaches, and friends. Program staff canvas area parishes for potential participants and continue to emphasize the policy of wide participation despite financial restraints.

Washington CYO activities take place primarily in schools and public parks. However, over the past few years, increased rental fees have caused the CYO to restrict the use of school facilities.

Competition

In the Washington area the main sports programs are track and field, basketball, baseball, soccer and softball. All sports are played at various competitive levels: intramural, intrastate, interstate. Competitions are divided into age groups from 8-9 years up to 17-18 years.

CYO athletes enter national and international competition sponsored by the various sports governing bodies. They also participate in the Special Olympics.

In general, the CYO follows the rules of play set down by the governing body of a particular sport, but follows its own rules of eligibility in terms of age, grade and weight. Players don't have to be Catholic to participate at the intramural level, but the rules do vary from parish to parish and some competitions may be restricted to Catholics only. There is no nationwide consensus on eligibility.

FINANCING

Sources

NCYOF funds come from its membership fees and a portion of the Youth Activities Office budget of the U.S. Catholic Conference. These figures are not publicly available. The Washington, D.C., CYO receives funds from several different sources:[1] donations from the diocese Board of Directors, team fees, membership dues, revenues from local competitions, and a percentage of the Youth Services budget within the Archdiocese. Washington, D.C., CYO's total annual budget, including salaries, is $300,000.

Uses

The NCYOF budget is used for publications, travel, salaries, and special mailings. The Washington, D.C., CYO budget is used for athletic equipment, rental fees, clinic expenses, administration, publicity and salaries.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

CYO athletic programs have contributed many competitors to the Olympic and Pan American Games and other world class competitions. These programs have helped to broaden the participation base of many Olympic sports while offering competitive opportunities for Catholic youths.

The National Catholic Youth Organization Federation serves in an advisory capacity to local CYO programs, but does not coordinate or fund them. This national organization represents the CYO on the Boards of the USOC and the AAU and disseminates ideas for new programs, guidelines for certification of coaches, rules for new sports and other information geared to help CYO programs advance the ideas of healthy competition in sports.

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[1] According to NCYOF, many local CYO programs also receive funds from the United Funds. Washington, D.C., CYO does not.

NATIONAL JEWISH WELFARE BOARD

OVERVIEW

The National Jewish Welfare Board (NJWB) was created to help Jewish families and soldiers during World War I in meeting welfare, religious and morale needs. It soon united with the Jewish Community Center as a consultant for activities in local Jewish communities. Although physical education and sports are a part of these activities, they are not the primary emphasis of the community centers of NJWB.

NJWB conducts annual national tournaments in four sports: basketball, volleyball, tennis and swimming. However, NJWB does not run any programs from the national level. Tournaments are organized and funded by the community selected as the site for the tournament that year. Each community center has its own budget, its own programs, its own instructors and coaches. NJWB acts as a management consultant to the centers, passing on suggestions for construction, personnel management and programs.

ORGANIZATION

National Administration

The National Jewish Welfare Board (NJWB) was created April 9, 1917. During World War I the Young Men's Hebrew Associations (YMHAs) joined JWB in its efforts and opened their facilities to men in uniform. These two groups united in 1921. The names YMHA and YWHA were replaced by "Jewish Community Center" (JCC) in many cases.

World War II JWB efforts included the use of JCCs as USO headquarters for Jewish soldiers, coordinating recreational and religious activities. The Jewish Community Center movement developed to the greatest degree after World War II, when JWB assisted as coordinator and advisor in the U.S., Europe, Latin America and Israel.

Structure

NJWB is governed by an 88-member Board of Directors, elected by the membership at its Biennial Convention. NJWB officers also are elected at the convention. The officers and Board members are elected for two-year terms and may be re-elected for one additional term.

An Executive Vice-President heads a staff of 100 professional and clerical workers. Services provided at the national headquarters, located in New York, include Health and Physical Education Committee, Research and Development Committee, Military Services, Commission on Jewish Chaplains, Jewish Book Council, Jewish Music Council, Jewish Lecture Bureau and Women's Organizational Services.

JWB has 450 members, all of which are JCCs, YMHAs and YWHAs, their branches and camps. No individual may belong. There is no membership fee.

NJWB's general goal is "to help improve the quality of Jewish living in America and to develop a sense of community and a sense of Jewish peoplehood." In sports and recreation the goal is the broadest possible participation level, with a de-emphasis on highly competitive activities.

Relationship with Other Organizations

NJWB is a Group B member of the USOC. Other sports-related memberships are in the AAU, the U.S. Committee for Sports in Israel and the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports.

DEVELOPMENT

All Jewish athletic programs are run at the local level. NJWB is merely an advisory unit and does not coordinate or fund the programs of its members. The following information is from the Jewish Community Center of Greater Washington, D.C., and is used as one example of local athletic programs.

Participation

There are approximately 500 participants in athletic programs sponsored by the JCC. The sports offered include: swimming, gymnastics, basketball, volleyball, soccer, squash, handball and raquetball. The Center also provides classes in karate, yoga and general exercise.

Programs emphasize participation at all levels, for all ages (9 months to senior citizen). Public relations efforts are aimed at getting new center memberships, both family and individual. Only center members may participate in center-sponsored programs; one need not be Jewish to belong to the center.

Individual membership fees range from $75 to over $200 and could be prohibitive for an athlete. Family membership fees range from $225 up to $357 and also may prohibit participation.

Facilities

Each Community Center must provide adequate facilities for all its programs. This is a requirement for NJWB membership.

COMPETITION

Because each center must cater to needs of the local community, the number and types of sports offered vary across the country. For example, the Denver JCC has an active skiing program. The Cleveland JCC has an active fencing program.

Levels of competition range from in-class to intramural to interstate to national. At the national level, NJWB sanctions tournaments in basketball, volleyball, tennis and "air mail swim meets" (times are mailed in to NJWB). These tournaments are organized and financed by local communities.

NJWB tournaments follow the rules of play set by the various national sports governing bodies, but rules of eligibility are geared specifically to JCC requirements. An athlete must be under 19 years of age; must not play on a school varsity or JV team; must not play in an outside league; and must be a member of a JCC.

FINANCING

Revenue Sources

NJWB receives its operating budget from three sources: local Jewish federations (fund raising organizations); JWB Associates (can be compared to "Friends of" programs) and an endowment program which receives funds from legacies earmarked for NJWB. Fiscal Year 1976 operating budget was $2,750,000.

The Jewish Community Center of Greater Washington, D.C., receives funds from several sources:

Internal

- Center membership dues;
- Program fees charged in addition to dues;
- Local fund raising efforts; and
- Fees charged to non-members (they may join classes but not compete on center teams).

External

- Corporate sponsors contribute to individual teams or events. For example, Uniroyal contributed $1,000 and the trophies for the 1976 national volleyball tournament.

The total operating budget for Health and Physical Education programs for FY 1976 was $186,126. Sports programs account for 14.2 percent of the total center budget.

Uses

NJWB monies are spent on salaries, publications, travel and mailings.

JCC of Greater Washington, D.C., uses funds for: salaries, full-time and part-time; equipment—pool supplies, maintenance and repair; office expenses—supplies, insurance, tapes, etc.; competitions; and program supplies.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The National Jewish Welfare Board offers many services, primarily to Jewish citizens, through Jewish Community Centers. Among the services offered is a varied program of physical education and athletic activities according to the interests of the local community. Although these sports programs do not directly lead to the development of world class athletes or offer elite level competition, they are a part of the grass roots development of many Olympic sports.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS

OVERVIEW

The National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) is a national multi-sport organization designed to serve small four-year colleges and universities. NAIA was founded to contribute actively to sports development, especially by encouraging tournament play beyond the conference level among member institutions. NAIA has grown from approximately 40 member institutions, which first held a national tournament in 1940, to a present membership of more 500 institutions and national tournaments in 15 sports.

NAIA appears to be an extremely healthy and well-run organization. It believes that sports are an integral part of a successful educational program, but that athletics should be given no greater emphasis than more traditional lines of academic inquiry. Historically, NAIA has always cooperated with the various organizations which hold sport franchises in the U.S. This cooperation has continued despite occasional strong pressure against such cooperation from other organizations active in interscholastic and intercollegiate athletics.

At present, NAIA seems to be facing no overwhelming problems; membership is fairly stable, and there seem to be no strong internal conflicts. Current major concerns are the raising and allocation of money, the division of competition, the implementation of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, (requiring equal opportunity for women in college sports), the slight decline of member institutions' participation in varsity sports, and the effects of organizational competition with the NCAA.

Money is a constant, but expected, problem. NAIA programs are relatively inexpensive. The organization's budget is approximately $600,000 per year, an amount consistent with NAIA history and philosophy.

NAIA varsity participation surveys indicate that during the past five years the numbers of teams and athletes competing in NAIA varsity sports have declined by approximately 14%. While the figures are somewhat tentative, they demonstrate the severe economic problems experienced by intercollegiate athletics.

The most complex problem facing NAIA members as a whole is the attempt to comply with the requirements of Title IX to provide equal athletic opportunity for women. Athletic directors at NAIA member institutions are confused and anxious over what Title IX requires of them. NAIA is trying to relieve this anxiety by providing information and instruction in this regard.

Another concern is friction between NAIA and the NCAA. While the NCAA traditionally has been concerned with large colleges and universities, it also competes with NAIA for members among the small colleges in its Divisions II and III. NAIA support of the AAU during the basketball franchise fight in the 1960s and early 1970s has further increased this tension.

ORGANIZATION

History

NAIA's predecessor, the National Association for Intercollegiate Basketball (NAIB), began in spirit in 1937 when the nation's first collegiate basketball tournament was held. NAIB was officially established in 1940; at that time, its membership consisted of 40 colleges and universities. By 1952, when NAIB changed its name to the National Association for Intercollegiate Athletics, it had a membership of 415 colleges and universities. Membership in 1975-76 was 517 four-year collegiate level institutions, down from 565 in 1971-72 and 555 in 1973-74.

The U.S. Olympic Committee (USOC) gave NAIA Group "B" membership status for the first time in 1963. In 1965 it was allowed representatives on the Olympic Sports Committees. In 1974, after years of rejection, NAIA was accepted as a member of the Basketball Rules Committee for the U.S. and Canada, which establishes basketball rules for the school/college community. Correspondence from the files of the NAIA Executive Director indicates that the earlier rejection of NAIA's membership application was in retaliation for NAIA support of the AAU in the basketball franchise fight between the AAU and the rest of the school/college community.

Structure

NAIA is made up of a central organization and 32 district organizations. The central organization, headquartered in Kansas City, Missouri, is governed by an Executive Committee elected each year by district chairmen and other district representatives to the NAIA national convention. The Executive Committee appoints an Executive Director who oversees day-to-day NAIA activities. The staff of the Executive Director is headed by three sports administrators and supported by a full-time secretarial staff.

Thirty-two District Chairmen and District Executive Committees are elected by faculty representatives from NAIA member institutions. These district organizations are largely autonomous; each district chairman is advised by sport committees representing each NAIA sport and some variation is permitted by the national body in rules of play of sports such as basketball.

The NAIA Coaches Association (NAIACA), composed of coaches associations for each sport, advises the national Executive Committee on general sport policy and on possible rule changes for NAIA members. Coaches pay dues to NAIACA which allocates money back to each sport's coaches association.

Primary responsibility of the national organization is arranging for national tournaments. In addition, the national staff represents NAIA members in other national organizations; gives advice rulings and sometimes money to district organizations with special problems; helps fund some international tours and competitions; and selects individual performances for recognition.

national tours and competitions; and selects individual performances for recognition.

Athletes' Representation

Athletes' representation is not of primary concern at the national organization level. Because NAIA is an association of educational institutions, and because athletics is viewed as a part of the educational process, athlete input may vary from school to school but is not institutionalized at the national level.

Membership

NAIA membership is restricted to four-year collegiate level educational institutions which agree with and practice NAIA's basic philosophy concerning the role of athletics in education. Some NAIA member institutions belong to both the NCAA and NAIA. These schools are considered "dual members" and may enter either NCAA or NAIA tournaments if eligible. Approximately 200 NAIA member institutions are also members of NCAA, Divisions II or III.[1]

As a rule, NAIA attempts to participate in the national governing bodies of each sport in which it has an active program, as well as in national sports organizations whose programs are congruent with NAIA's philosophy. Since 1963, NAIA has been a Group B member of the U.S. Olympic Committee and its athletes and coaches have taken part in national team activities undertaken by the USOC. In particular, NAIA contributions to the U.S. Olympic basketball program have been substantial.

NAIA is an allied member of the AAU and is a voting member of those sports committees in which it carries out an active program. NAIA is the only major national school/college organization in the country which maintained cordial relations with the AAU through the franchise fights of the '60s and '70s.

NAIA maintains membership in the following national governing bodies:

- Amateur Basketball Association of the (ABAUSA),
- U.S. Baseball Federation (USBF),
- U.S. Gymnastics Federation (USGF), and
- U.S. Volleyball Association (USVBA).

In addition, NAIA belongs to the U.S. Collegiate Sports Council, (USCSC), American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (AAHPER) and the Halls of Fame for Basketball, Swimming, and Track and Field. NAIA is also a member in one international organization, the Basketball Rules Committee of the U.S. and Canada.

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[1] Recently, an amendment to the NAIA's Bylaws was approved allowing NCAA Division 1 members to seek membership in the NAIA provided that such members will not participate in basketball and football programs conducted by the NAIA.

DEVELOPMENT

Number of Competing Athletes in Each Sport

More than 63,000 athletes at NAIA member institutions competed on varsity teams during the 1975-1976 school year. This figure represents a decrease (by some 14%) from 1971-1972 participation figures. (See table below.)

NAIA leadership expresses no deep concern over declining participation figures. The decline is viewed as a temporary phenomenon caused by the recent economic situation and by a general reassessment among college administrators over the role of athletics in education. Because NAIA membership is increasing, and the vital signs of the organization are strong, NAIA administrators expect participation figures to stabilize.

Efforts to Attract New Participants

NAIA's philosophy, which holds that athletics is a necessary part of overall education, is designed to increase the number of participating athletes at each member institution. By promoting national tournaments, NAIA intensifies competition, encouraging member institutions to field teams and student athletes to participate.

Barriers to Participation

Traditionally, a strong point of educational athletic programs has been that the opportunity to participate in athletics is available to students without regard to cost or other traditional barriers. With increasing numbers of women interested in participating in sports and with the implementation of Title IX, sex discrimination, too, should decrease as a factor in determining an individual's opportunity to participate in intercollegiate athletics. NAIA currently sponsors no women's sports programs as such, although individual NAIA member institutions may do so. Current NAIA policy regarding participation in national tournaments is that a woman may compete on a men's team if she has successfully competed for a position on that team.

Sport	1971—72	1975—76	Avg. Athletes Per Team
Baseball	468 (Teams)	399 (Teams)	22
Basketball	555 "	503 "	15
Bowling	73 "	34 "	10
Cross Country	340 "	279 "	12
Football	285 "	233 "	48
Golf	452 "	336 "	12
Gymnastics	50 "	16 "	10
Ice Hockey	38 "	27 "	20
Soccer	182 "	180 "	24
Swimming	137 "	103 "	22
Tennis	446 "	385 "	8
Track & Field (Indoor)	No Indoor Track Figures	148 "	20
Track & Field (Outdoor)	392 "	317 "	28
Volleyball	17 "	10 "	16
Wrestling	223 "	169 "	17
Total Athletes (Est.)	73,295 "	63,375	

Development of Participation in "Minor" Sports

Because NAIA has a small budget (approximately $600,000/year) and because the organization's philosophy calls for as much autonomy as possible for member institutions, NAIA has no mechanism for developing interest among its membership in so-called "minor" sports. Rather, NAIA concentrates only on those sports which have generated a minimum level of interest among member institutions.

FACILITIES

Facilities vary greatly from institution to institution. Normally, member institutions own or have access to the facilities necessary to their sports programs and they often limit use of these facilities to athletes enrolled at the member institution.

COMPETITION

As noted, NAIA sponsors national tournaments in 15 sports. With the exception of football, all member institutions may compete in the same tournament in all sports. In football, two championships are held, one for larger and another for smaller schools. While the general rules of competition for each of the 15 NAIA-sponsored sports are standardized for national tournaments, some variation in the rules is allowed at the district level. For example, certain districts use a 30-second clock in basketball, even though it is not used in the national NAIA basketball tournament, which follows rules of the Basketball Rules Committee.

This latitude in rule variation reflects NAIA's philosophy that, whenever possible, decisions affecting the school and the athlete should be made by the school rather than by the national body. "The basic concept. . .of NAIA. . .is that the intercollegiate athletic program of member institutions [should] be an integral part of their total educational program. . .[and should] be the full responsibility of the president [of the member institution] and his administrative staff. . ."[2]

An examination of NAIA's Constitution and By-laws illustrates its unique position in the school/college community with regard to rules restricting competition. Unlike the NCAA, NAIA has no associational rules which restrain college athletes from competing internationally. For example, NAIA has no rules similar to the NCAA's rule prohibiting a college athlete from competing "in any organized basketball competition except while representing his institution in intercollegiate competition," unless special permission is obtained from the NCAA Council (Constitution 3-9-(c)). Similarly, NAIA places no restrictions on "outside team" (i.e., non-school) participation, even if such participation occurs during the school team's competitive season. Such in-season "outside team" competition is (again with special exceptions from the Council possible) explicitly prohibited by the NCAA. (Constitution, 3-9-(d)).

Neither does NAIA impose any restrictions on track and field or gymnastics, such as the NCAA's certification requirement for non-collegiate meets. NCAA By-laws 2-4 and 2-5 generally require the promoter of a non-collegiate meet in either of these sports to obtain certification from the NCAA's Extra Events Committee. Participation in a non-certified meet, even while competing for a U.S. national team, renders the NCAA athlete ineligible for further collegiate competition. (See the discussion of the Samara/Walker case in the chapter in this volume on the NCAA.)

The NCAA's five-year eligibility rule, (Constitution 3-9-(a)) is also without NAIA analogue. With some exceptions, the NCAA requires an athlete to "complete his seasons of participation within five calendar years from the beginning of the semester or quarter in which he first registered at a collegiate institution." This rule causes problems for NCAA athletes selected for a national team in sports such as ice hockey or soccer which require a lengthy period of preparation. If an athlete joins the national team, he would, of course, have to drop out of school. However, even while away from college, the NCAA's clock continues to tick away at an athlete's five years of eligibility, perhaps preventing him from competing upon his return to school. (As noted in the NCAA chapter in this volume, there is support within the NCAA to liberalize this rule.)

NAIA rules, on the other hand, state simply that "A student may participate four seasons in one sport in ten semesters of attendance or its equivalent. The ten semesters need not be consecutive."[3] Dropping out of school to compete on a U.S. national team does not adversely affect the NAIA athlete's eligibility.

NAIA's rule prohibiting "individual or group tryouts . . . of prospective applicants for admission to colleges"[4] is similar in many respects to the NCAA's prohibition against tryouts. However, NAIA, unlike the NCAA, does not ban virtually all previously established athlete-college coach relationships once the athlete enters his senior year of high school. Thus, NAIA allows a high school senior to swim for a club team coached by a college swimming coach, even if the athlete is not a resident of the community where the club is located. This is not permitted by the NCAA.

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[2] "Statement of Philosophy," National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics Official Handbook. Fifth Edition, p.3.

[3] Article V, Section D1, NAIA Bylaws, National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics Official Handbook. Fifth Edition, p. 30.

[4] Article I, Section D, NAIA Bylaws, National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics Official Handbook. Fifth Edition, p. 15.

As mentioned in the chapter on the NCAA, that association has taken the position that "broken-time" payments, although permitted by the international Olympic Committee, constitute "a form of pay for participation" rendering the recipient ineligible for collegiate competition in the sport in question. NAIA has not yet addressed the issue of "broken-time" payments, but is expected to do so in the near future.

The above examples illustrate NAIA's rather liberal attitude — as compared with that of the NCAA — toward non-collegiate competition. NAIA's position regarding international competition is summarized by the following rule: "international competition for individuals approved by the individual institution or institutional teams *shall be permitted* [emphasis added]. The NAIA Executive Secretary shall be notified prior to such participation. Such international play shall not affect seasons of play."[5]

(It bears noting that NAIA only recently has abolished its associational controls over international competition. Until 1974, international competition required approval of both the athlete's school and the NAIA Executive Committee. The present NAIA policy — leaving international competition decisions solely up to the athlete and his school might well be considered by other school/college athletic associations.)

FINANCING

NAIA carries out its essential operations with an annual budget of approximately $600,000 received from three primary sources: membership dues, tournament proceeds, and grants. Each member institution pays an annual NAIA membership fee according to a schedule based on enrollment. Approximately $150,000 a year is received from this source.

National and district NAIA organizations share revenues produced by tournaments. Sixty percent of revenues produced by district tournaments is appropriated by the national organization; the rest remains with the district. The national body keeps 100 percent of proceeds from each national tournament, in return for which it pays transportation, food, lodging and per diem expenses to participating teams. Tournaments produce approximately $400,000 a year through ticket sales, radio rights, etc., and consume approximately $270,000 a year in direct expenses.

NAIA also receives approximately $50,000 per year in grants from organizations such as the Major Leagues of Professional Baseball and the National Bowling Council to assist baseball and bowling championship and all-star teams with travel expenses. The U.S. Baseball Federation also has aided NAIA all-star teams with funds for international travel.

NAIA successfully generates revenues necessary to carry out its basic programs and can probably continue to sponsor effective programs in its 15 sports without outside help. If NAIA should wish to participate more extensively in international exchanges and competitions, money for such activities would have to come from elsewhere, but in the absence of a national effort to increase international competition, NAIA is effectively meeting its needs.

Exhibit I summarizes major NAIA revenues and expenses for fiscal year 1975. Most expenses are charged directly to the sports that incur them and most are in connection with tournaments. Non-tournament expenses consist primarily of personnel and administrative costs which do not lend themselves to allocation by sport.

SUMMARY

NAIA faces no overwhelming problems and can continue to discharge its obligations without outside help. However, resolution of certain problems which plague sports systems in the United States could make NAIA's job much easier. The two major issues that need resolution:

- NAIA, and indeed all scholastic and collegiate level organizations, require clarification of and help with the implementation of Title IX; and,
- NAIA and most sports organizations in this country would be helped significantly by the resolution of disputes among other amateur sports organizations.

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[5] Article I, Section A, NAIA Bylaws, National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics Official Handbook. Fifth Edition, p. 14.

EXHIBIT I
SOURCES AND USES OF FUNDS (OLYMPIC SPORTS ONLY)
FISCAL 1975[1]

	Basketball	Track	Wrestling	Swimming	Gymnastics	Volleyball	Non-Olympic Sports	Unallocated	Total
Ticket & Program Sales from Events	$264,515	$20,000							
Entry Fees		$ 2,030							
Advertising & Radio	2,823								
Sponsorship	1,798	15,000				$ 200			
Other	750								
Total	$269,886	$37,030	—	—	—	$ 200	$119,059	$174,716	$600,891
Expenses:									
Competitions (Travel, Meals & Lodging, Equipment, Facilities Rental, Officials, Awards, etc.)	177,312	25,224	306	966	494	242			
Administration	13,338	3,798	3,143	334	268	154		$277,204[2]	
Total	$190,650	$29,022	$3,449	$1,300	$762	$ 396	$ 81,803	$277,204	$584,586

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[1] Source — NAIA Financial Statements

[2] Consists principally of personnel costs, travel and office management costs.

THE NATIONAL COLLEGIATE ATHLETIC ASSOCIATION

OVERVIEW

The National Collegiate Association (NCAA) is a professional organization of 829 members, 730 of which are educational institutions. Formed in 1906, the Association's major goal is to serve as an overall national discussion, legislation, and administration body for the nation's universities and colleges in matters pertaining to intercollegiate athletes. The NCAA has no sports facilities of its own, but rather operates as a service organization. With an operating budget of about $2.9 million, the NCAA sponsors National Championships in 18 sports: negotiates T.V. contracts for sports coverage; publishes and disseminates rule books, films, books, periodicals, and manuals; partially reimburses member institutions for team travel to National Championships; awards post graduate scholarships; enforces rules of the Association; and administers medical insurance programs. Also, the NCAA represents its member institutions' views relating to amateur athletics before various national and international sports organizations and at all levels of government.

NCAA member institutions are organized into 53 allied voting members or conferences, based on geography, proximity and/or sport; and three Divisions, based on size of athletic program, particularly in the revenue-generating sports of football and basketball. Each member institution belongs to one Division and to one or more conferences. Rules and bylaws may vary in these Divisions and Conferences, but generally they are consistent with those of the national body.

Next to the high schools, the colleges and universities offer perhaps the most comprehensive amateur sports program in the United States. Of the nation's 1,887 four-year colleges and universities, 730 (or 39%) are affiliated with the NCAA, representing institutions with the largest and best financially endowed sports programs. Member institutions sponsor an average of 8.997 sports each with basketball, tennis, and golf having the highest number of sponsoring institutions. Twenty-three different sports were sponsored by member institutions in 1975-76, with national championships held in 18. Of these 18, ten are on the Olympic calendar as of 1976.

NCAA member institutions command vast resources to run these sports programs. In 1971-72,[1] NCAA member-owned facilities were valued at $1,545,917,580. Included in this calculation were the following facilities suitable for training in the Olympic Sports: 2,571 basketball courts, 567 archery ranges, 790 gymnasiums/field houses, 146 ice rinks, 218 rifle ranges, 682 running tracks, 603 swimming pools, 442 wrestling rooms, 44 ski slides, 744 soccer fields, and 19 trapshooting ranges. The next study to be completed by the NCAA, for the 1976-77 academic year, will surely reflect increases in member-owned facilities.

Also in 1971-72, NCAA institutions employed 5,379 full-time and 2,801 part-time coaches. Athletic operating budgets for NCAA colleges totalled over $535 million a year, not including figures for intramural and club activities, facilities, or land. Of this total, more than $154 million was allocated directly to the support of student-athletes, in the form of athletic scholarships.

[1] Every five years, the NCAA conducts a survey of members' sports programs. 1971-72 is the most recent year for which survey results are available; at that time there were 663 NCAA member institutions.

More than 200,000 students at NCAA institutions in 1971-72 took advantage of these resources to participate in intercollegiate athletics. From this group of student-athletes come many future Olympians. Clearly the vast resources of NCAA's member institutions provide a spawning ground for world class athletes. The NCAA does not directly control these resources although the Association's policies influence the manner in which these resources may be used.

ORGANIZATION

History

Intercollegiate athletics started in 1852 with a boat race. The impetus for formation of the National Collegiate Athletic Association, however, was the flying wedge, football's famous offensive move in 1905. The high number of injuries and deaths resulting from the use of mass formations and gang tackling in football caused many institutions to discontinue the sport and others to call for its abolition from intercollegiate athletics. President Theodore Roosevelt convened two White House Conferences of college athletic leaders for the purpose of reforming the game.

In December of 1905, 13 institutions held a meeting to discuss reformation of football playing rules. At a second meeting in the same month, 62 colleges and universities founded the Intercollegiate Athletic Association which became official in March 1906. Its name was changed to the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) in 1910.

Initially, the NCAA existed to formulate official playing rules of the respective sports and to help in the recruitment of faculty members. The first NCAA national championship was held in 1921 for track and field. Now the NCAA sponsors 39 national championships in 18 sports.

After World War II, a number of crises faced the NCAA. Serious abuses in recruiting and financial aid were becoming widespread, in part because of the numbers of young men leaving the service and the long-distance recruiting made possible by the ease of air travel. The "Sanity Code," adopted to establish guidelines in these areas, was found to be ineffective. Post-season football games were increasing without control or supervision, and unrestricted televising of these games was having a negative effect on football attendance.

In response to these growing problems, as well as to cope with the increase in membership, the NCAA named a full-time executive director and established a national headquarters in Kansas City, Missouri, in 1952. At its annual convention that year, legislation was adopted governing post-season bowl games, enforcement powers were delegated to the NCAA Council, and a program policy regarding contracts for live television was approved.

In the early part of 1960, the NCAA initiated meetings of several amateur sports organizations to consider the administration of amateur athletics by various U. S. governing bodies. Several sports federations were established as part of what was later to be called the "federation movement" to place the national administration of amateur sports in single-purpose organizations.[3]

The annual NCAA convention in 1965 adopted the controversial "1.600 rule," which required each student-athlete to predict, based on past academic performance, a minimum grade point average of 1.600 at his institution before becoming a member of an athletic squad. This rule was repealed by the 1973 Convention.

Two other important steps were taken by the NCAA in 1973. First, a national office building was constructed in Shawnee Mission, Kansas, a Kansas City suburb, at a cost of $1.5 million and the NCAA Publishing Service was moved from Phoenix to Shawnee Mission. Second, at its first special convention, NCAA delegates took less than one hour to reorganize the Association into three legislative and competitive divisions. The section on NCAA Divisions describes this new structure.

Membership

The NCAA encompasses all sizes and types of institutions, from the largest state universities to small private and church-affiliated colleges.

Any college or university may be elected to membership if it:

1. Is accredited by the recognized academic accrediting agency of the region in which it is located;
2. Has programs in a minimum of four intercollegiate sports, with one sport in each of the three traditional seasons of the academic year;
3. Complies (with the President of the institution so certifying) with all NCAA legislation dealing with financial aid, recruiting, playing and practice seasons, postseason competition, extra-NCAA competition, and other areas of athletic administration; and
4. Agrees to cooperate fully with the NCAA enforcement program and to respect the penalties imposed by that program.

The NCAA has four classes of memberships: Active Voting members are four-year colleges and universities and two-year upper level collegiate institutions. Allied Voting members are athletic conferences or associations of colleges and universities. Non-voting Associate members are educational institutions not eligible for active membership, and non-voting Affiliated members are other groups and associations intimately related to intercollegiate athletics in their functions and purposes.

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[3] Further discussion of this topic may be found in the Section on Competition.

Presently NCAA membership is 829; 730 collegiate institutions, 59 athletic conferences and 40 affiliated organizations. Exhibit I illustrates how this membership has grown since 1950. Many NCAA member institutions also belong to the National Association for Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA), and/or the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW). Through the NCAA, member institutions review any sports-related problem which has crossed regional or conference lines and has become national in character.

Before the NCAA Annual Convention, each member institution's president is asked to designate either himself or someone else as a voting representative to attend the meeting. Some presidents of the voting member institutions participate directly in NCAA's decision making at its annual convention by attending and voting in person, but voting representatives are usually faculty representatives or the institution's athletic director, (both usually attend as either observer or delegate). At the 1976 NCAA Convention, 89 college or university presidents attended in person. The direct involvement of college presidents in NCAA voting has been increasing over the past few years, in part because of a movement by member institutions to reassert their role.

NCAA Divisions

On occasion, the NCAA has been described erroneously as an organization of large colleges and universities. While every institution conducting a major athletic program does hold membership in the NCAA, more than 400 institutions which do not compete on the major-college level also are NCAA members. At the 1973 special convention, each member college was given the opportunity to determine in which of the three newly-created divisions it wished to compete.

Each division may propose changes in the bylaws, which, if adopted by majority vote of the members in that division, are applicable only to that division. However, such legislation must be consistent with overall NCAA Constitution bylaws, and may be rescinded by a two-thirds majority of all delegates from all divisions present and voting at a convention. Each division is represented on the Council and the Executive Committee, as well as on many standing committees of the Association.

NCAA championship competition is now conducted in all three divisions in at least 10 sports, and the overall championship program encompasses 39 meets and tournaments.

At the NCAA's 1977 Annual Convention, the Council will sponsor proposed modifications to the Association's three division format. The three major aspects of the proposal are that (1) any NCAA institution would be eligible for Division I membership if it sponsors eight varsity intercollegiate sports, including football and basketball, and meets minimum performance standards throughout its program; (2) Division I members would not be guaranteed appearances on NCAA's football television series; any Divisional member could qualify to appear on the basis of its sports program's merits; and (3) Division II and III members could compete in from one to four Division I championships in addition to six national championships (fencing, ice hockey, skiing, indoor track, volleyball, and water polo),[3] depending upon the number of sports sponsored by the members.

In December of 1976, however, delegates from 56 member colleges, representing the most powerful football schools, met in Dallas to form an organization to be called the College Football Association (CFA). According to *New York Times* article dated December 21, 1976, the purpose of the organization, as stated by the meeting chairman, is to provide a forum for discussing mutual problems and to identify issues. In fact, CFA poses a threat to the NCAA organization and the 600-plus smaller NCAA members since CFA members are financially strong and will be campaigning for changes in NCAA rules which would better accommodate their needs and programs.

Among those not attending the first meeting of CFA were the Ivy League colleges and members of the Big Ten and Pacific-8 Conferences. Criteria for membership in CFA include 1) a stadium seating capacity of 30,000, an average home football game attendance of 20,000 over the last three seasons, and a schedule that includes CFA opponents in at least 70% of its football games.

The *Times* goes on to state that it is the intention of CFA to formally establish itself by February 1, 1977, to apply for membership in the NCAA and to work to reorganize the NCAA so that the football powers presently in Division I (about 80 of 247 members in Division I) will constitute a new Division. Although official CFA activities will not occur before its formal establishment in 1977, its creation will surely cause discussion at the NCAA's annual convention in January, 1977.

NCAA Athletic Conferences

Within NCAA's allied membership category are athletic conferences or associations with 1) all of its members as active members of the NCAA *or* 2) forty or more members with 90% of its members institutions as active members of NCAA. Allied members

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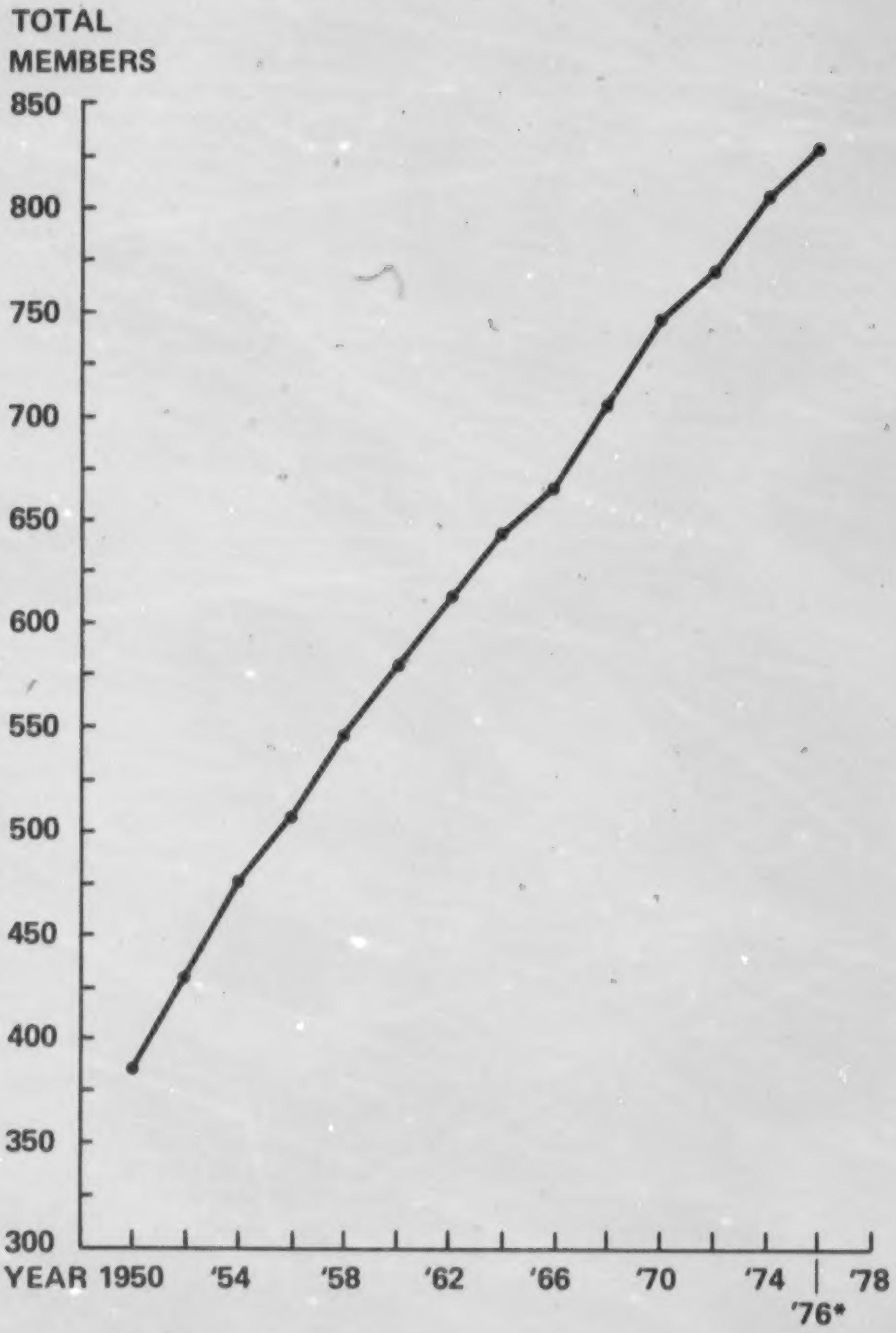
[3] NCAA meets and tournaments are not sponsored in these sports for Division II or Division membership to warrant NCAA legislation.

EXHIBIT I
THE NATIONAL COLLEGIATE ATHLETIC ASSOCIATION
Membership Growth



YEAR	TOTAL MEMBERSHIP
1950	387
1951	415
1952	430
1953	456
1954	477
1955	489
1956	509
1957	539
1958	549
1959	567
1960	582
1961	597
1962	614
1963	623
1964	645
1965	659
1966	666
1967	691
1968	706
1969	721
1970	747
1971	757
1972	770
1973	776
1974	806
1975	824
1976	829 *

* As of April 1, 1976

may vote at the NCAA convention if they 1) have at least six member institutions from a single division, 2) conduct Conference-wide competition in at least four sports, (one per season), and 3) have legislative and competitive responsibilities.

These voting allied members (conferences) are given authority by their member institutions to regulate intercollegiate competitions within their conferences. Eleven are so-called "major" conferences, defined as having major programs in both football and basketball. The Commissioners of these eleven conferences—Atlantic Coast, Big Eight, Big Ten, Eastern Collegiate Athletic, Mid-American Athletic, Missouri Valley, Pacific-8, Southeastern, Southern, Southwestern, and Western Athletic—form the Collegiate Commissioners Conference. There are another 30-plus voting Conferences considered "minor," since they don't have major programs in both football and basketball.

Voting athletic conferences have policy-making bodies, usually composed of Chief Executive Officers or faculty representatives of the member institutions. Policies are formulated regarding eligibility rules for regular season competition, as the NCAA does not have regulations in some areas. These Conference in-season eligibility rules tend to be stricter than NCAA post-season eligibility rules. In some conferences, rules for competition conduct (e.g., travel squad size, length of playing season, number of games) are also established. Conferences may establish rules that are stricter than NCAA rules covering the same issue, but may not make them more lenient. Enforcement programs exist in some but not all of the conferences.

Organizational Goals

Stated purposes of the NCAA are:

—To initiate, stimulate and improve intercollegiate athletic programs for student-athletes and promote and develop educational leadership, physical fitness, sports participation as a recreational pursuit and athletic excellence;

—To uphold the principle of institutional control of, and responsibility for, all intercollegiate sports in conformity with the Constitution and Bylaws of this Association;

—To encourage its members to adopt eligibility rules to comply with satisfactory standards of scholarship, sportsmanship and amateurism;

—To formulate, copyright and publish rules of play governing intercollegiate sports;

—To preserve intercollegiate athletic records;

—To supervise the conduct of, and to establish eligibility standards for, regional and national athletic events under the auspices of this Association;

—To cooperate with other amateur athletic organizations in promoting and conducting national and international athletic events;

—To legislate, through Bylaws or by resolution of a Convention, upon any subject of general concern to the members in the administration of intercollegiate athletics; and

—To study in general all phases of competitive intercollegiate athletics and establish standards whereby the colleges and universities of the United States can maintain their athletic activities on a high level.

—To uphold the principle of institutional control of, and responsibility for, all intercollegiate athletics;

—To serve as an overall national discussion, legislative and administrative body for the universities and colleges of the United States in matters of intercollegiate athletics;

—To recommend policies for the guidance of member institutions in the conduct of their intercollegiate athletic programs;

—To study all phases of competitive athletics and establish standards therefor, to the end that colleges and universities of the United States may maintain their athletic activities on a high plane;

—To encourage the adoption by its constitutent members of eligibility rules in compliance with satisfactory standards of scholarship, amateur standing and good sportsmanship;

—To establish and supervise regional and national collegiate athletic contests under the auspices of the Association and establish rules of eligibility therefor;

—To stimulate and improve programs to promote and develop educational leadership, physical fitness, sports participation as a recreational pursuit and athletic excellence through competitive intramural and intercollegiate programs;

—To cooperate with other amateur athletic organizations in the promotion and conduct of national and international athletic contests; and

—To otherwise assist member institutions as requested in the furtherance of their intercollegiate athletic programs.

The NCAA makes it very clear in its Constitution, however, that its fundamental purpose is to maintain intercollegiate athletics as an integral part of the educational program and the athlete as an integral part of the student body. The NCAA thus implies that intercollegiate athletic policies and rules made by member institutions or administrative bodies must be consistent with and subordinate to the educational policies of those institutions. To carry out this mandate from its member institutions, the NCAA is organized in the following manner.

Administrative Structure

The NCAA is divided into eight geographic districts for purposes of facilitating NCAA's operations. Many NCAA committees, through which most NCAA business is conducted, are composed of district representatives and most also have specified representation from each of the three Divisions.

The final authority and governing body of the NCAA is the Annual Convention, normally held during the early part of January. Each Active and Allied Member is entitled to one vote on all issues before the Convention.

An 18-member Council elected by the convention is responsible for establishing and directing general NCAA policy between Conventions. The Council is composed of the NCAA President and Secretary-Treasurer (both elected for one-year terms), eight District Vice-Presidents (elected for staggered two-years terms) and eight Vice-President-at-Large (elected for staggered three-year terms). The 16 vice-presidents represent the three Divisions by a ratio of 8 (Div. I): 4 (Div. II): 4 (Div. III). (The composition of the Council during 1975-76 was nine directors or assistant directors of athletics, two deans, one University president, three professors, and one academic assistant). Changes made by the Council in any Division's rules and regulations must be ratified by the member colleges assembled in Annual Conventions.

An Executive Committee of 10 members, including the President and Secretary-Treasurer, is elected by the Council to administer NCAA business and carry out policies formulated by the Convention and the Council. Other Executive Committee members are five Division I representatives and three representatives for Divisions II and III, with a minimum of one per Division. The Executive Committee handles events and finances. For the 1975-76 academic year, the eight elected Committee members included two commissioners (directors of NCAA allied conferences), two faculty representatives, and four athletic directors. The average years served to date on the committee by these individuals is 3.6; the longest term of office served to date is six years. Decisions made by either the Council or the Executive Committee are subject to review at the Annual Convention and can be rejected, modified, or approved.

Committees are the core of the NCAA. They develop policy by channeling reports and recommendations through the Council or the Executive Committee to the Annual Convention. At present, there are three general committees, 18 special committees, three convention committees, and 21 sports committees. Additional special committees may be appointed from time to time by the Council to undertake assigned projects. Committee members generally serve three-year terms and may be elected for one additional term. Three years after the second term a former member may be elected for one additional term, after which he may not serve again on that committee.

General Committees of the NCAA include Competitive Safeguards and Medical Aspects of the Sport (six members); Constitution and Bylaws (three members; one from each division); and Extra Events (six members; at least one from Division II and III). Members are elected at the Annual Convention for three-year terms.

Special Committees appointed by the NCAA Council include, at the present time, Academic Testing and Requirements, All-Star High School Games, Drug Education, Eligibility, Infractions, Insurance, International Relations, Junior College Relations, Postgraduate Scholarship, Professional Sports Liaison, Television, and Women's Intercollegiate Athletics. Generally, members are appointed by the NCAA Council to serve three-year terms.

The NCAA Executive Committee is empowered to appoint Convention Committees, including Credentials, Memorial Resolutions, and Voting. The NCAA Council is empowered to appoint a Committee on Committees and a Nominating Committee (for preparing a slate of nominees for NCAA officer positions). Convention committee members are appointed to serve three-year terms.

Sports Committees responsible for making official playing rules for their respective sports are: Baseball, Basketball Rules, Fencing, Football Rules, Gymnastics, Ice Hockey, Lacrosse, Skiing, Soccer, Swimming, Track and Field, Water Polo, and Wrestling. The composition of each committee depends upon the specific sport, but all committee members are elected at the Annual Convention and serve three-year terms. In most instances, these committees provide for NCAA District and Divisional representation, and have junior college or secondary school representation.

Sports Committees responsible solely for the administration and conduct of particular championship events for their respective divisions are Division I Basketball, Division II Basketball, Division III Basketball, Division II Football, and Division III Football (there is no Division I Football Championship). Committees for golf, tennis and volleyball administer championships in all three divisions. Committee members are elected at the Annual Convention for three-year terms.

Nearly half of currently active NCAA member institutions (343 of the 704 member institutions in 1975, or 48.7%) were represented on official NCAA committees between 1960 and 1975.

[3] Although there is no official provision for them in the NCAA national structure, many colleges and universities have Athlete Academic Advisors who have formed an informal advisory committee to the national body. Being concerned with the longterm goals and interests of student athletes, these advisors are sometimes at odds with athletic directors or coaches who are more concerned with the immediate team/college performance. Advisors seem to come from a variety of areas within their respective colleges. Some are employees of the athletic department, others are career advisors from the school's counseling department, and others are interested academic or athletic staff who were given additional responsibility.

NCAA Headquarters

The NCAA provides a number of services in support of its goals out of its Shawnee Mission, Kansas, office. In particular, the NCAA:

—Interprets and enforces legislation to deal with athletic problems when they spread across regional lines and member institutions have concluded that national action is needed and enacted legislation to that effect;

—Conducts research as a means of developing solutions to various athletic problems;

—Provides financial and other assistance to various groups interested in the promotion and advancement of intercollegiate and intramural activities;

—Represents the colleges in legislative and regulatory matters on the state and federal levels, covering topics such as anti-bribery and gambling laws, television, international competition and federal aid to education affecting sports and physical education;

—Administers group travel and medical insurance programs whereby member institutions can provide coverage for illness or injury for student-athletes when they are engaged in practice, play or transport;

—Administers a loss-of-revenue insurance program which provides games-cancellation insurance for catastrophic financial losses suffered in the sports of basketball and football;

—Negotiates contracts for television coverage of NCAA national sport championships;

—Provides a large film library covering National Collegiate Championship play, including more than 300 titles in 11 sports;

—Promotes and participates in international sports planning and competition through membership in the U.S. Collegiate Sports Council, the U.S. Baseball Federation, the Amateur Basketball Association of the U.S.A. and the U.S. Gymnastics, Track and Field, and Wrestling Federations;

—Publishes the NCAA NEWS and other publications to advise its members and other interested parties events and information important to intercollegiate athletics; and

—Supports and carries out policies and directives of NCAA Committees (e.g., Extra Events review and certification).

The NCAA National Office has a professional staff of about 35 persons to manage and provide these services. This staff is organized as shown in the organization chart on the following page.

The NCAA *Publishing Service* is responsible for the production of virtually all NCAA publications and other printed materials. The Service is financially self-sustaining; its annual budget of more than $330,000 is met through the sale of publications.

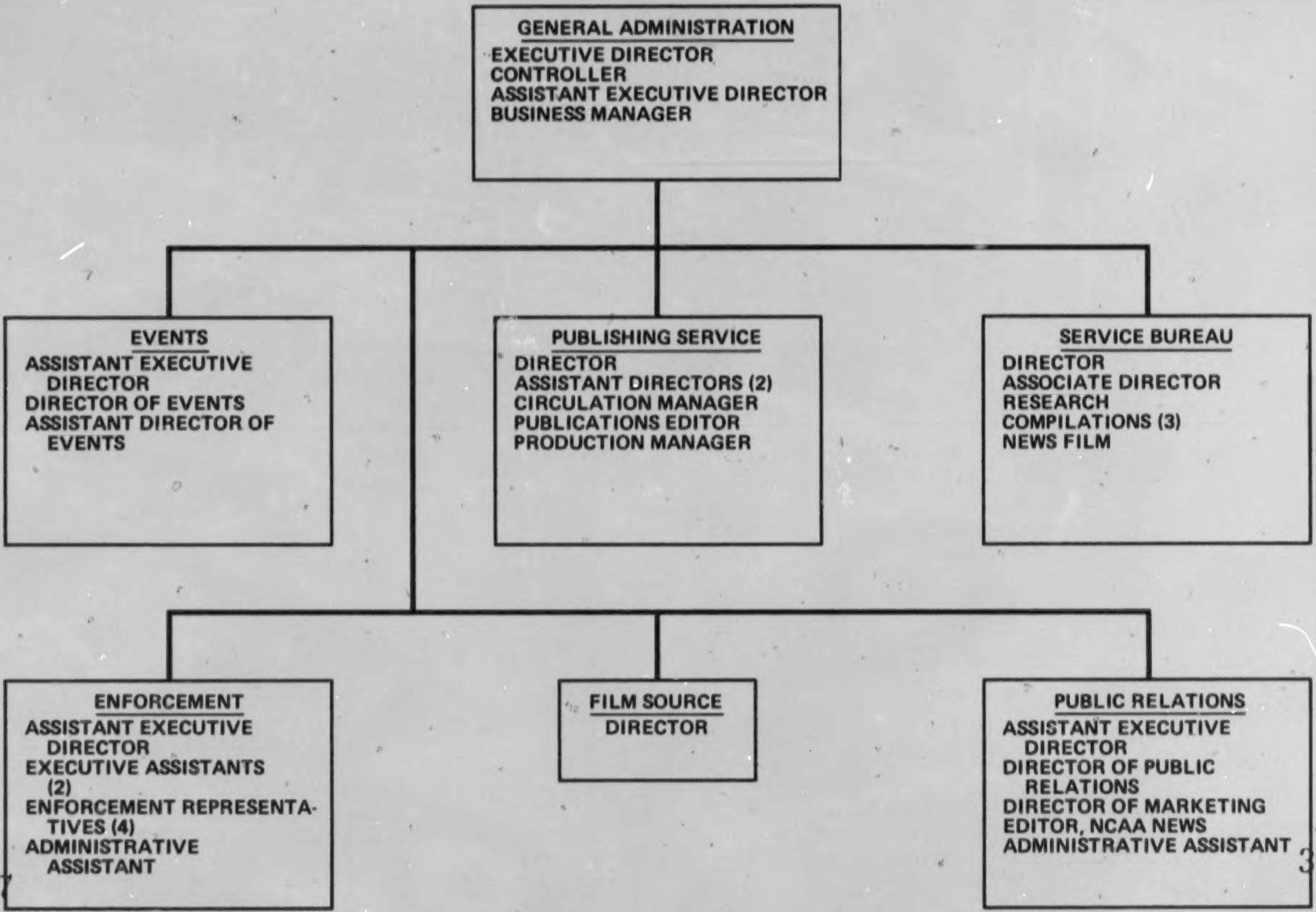
The *Service Bureau* collects, compiles and distributes official college football, basketball and baseball statistics. It also performs other public relations and promotional services for the NCAA. Its annual budget of more than $320,000 is primarily realized through grants from the NCAA operating budget.

The *Film Service* makes available to member institutions and other organizations sport films, including National Collegiate Championship films. Over 300 films, with coverage in 11 sports, are available on a loan basis from this division.

The *Events* division reviews and certifies, on behalf of, and after consultation with, Extra Events Committee, events which are outside the direct jurisdiction of the NCAA. Events which must be certified before any NCAA student-athletes may participate in them include post-season football contests, college all-star football and basketball contests, and track and field and gymnastics meets not sponsored, promoted, managed, and controlled by NCAA member institutions. In reviewing applications for certification of track and field and gymnastics meets, the NCAA Events division in practice requires the sponsor to have received prior approval and sanction of the U.S. Track and Field Federation (USTFF) and the U.S. Gymnastics Federation (USGF), respectively. (Note: While USGF is the national governing body for gymnastics, USTFF is not the national governing body for track and field.) The Events division also negotiates the basketball television contract presently with NBC TV.

The *Public Relations* division of the NCAA has a variety of functions, including event promotion, media seminar sponsorship, preparation of the

NCAA
NATIONAL OFFICE



GENERAL ADMINISTRATION
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
CONTROLLER
ASSISTANT EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
BUSINESS MANAGER

EVENTS
ASSISTANT EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
DIRECTOR OF EVENTS
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF EVENTS

PUBLISHING SERVICE
DIRECTOR
ASSISTANT DIRECTORS (2)
CIRCULATION MANAGER
PUBLICATIONS EDITOR
PRODUCTION MANAGER

SERVICE BUREAU
DIRECTOR
ASSOCIATE DIRECTOR
RESEARCH
COMPILATIONS (3)
NEWS FILM

ENFORCEMENT
ASSISTANT EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
EXECUTIVE ASSISTANTS (2)
ENFORCEMENT REPRESENTATIVES (4)
ADMINISTRATIVE ASSISTANT

FILM SOURCE
DIRECTOR

PUBLIC RELATIONS
ASSISTANT EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC RELATIONS
DIRECTOR OF MARKETING
EDITOR, NCAA NEWS
ADMINISTRATIVE ASSISTANT

NCAA News, general public relations for the NCAA, and negotiation of the football television contract, presently with ABC TV.

In 1952 administrators of NCAA member institutions decided to create machinery to enforce NCAA legislation. Thus, the enforcement program is a cooperative undertaking; member institutions and allied conferences work together through the NCAA in a unified effort to improve the administration of intercollegiate athletics.

The NCAA's Executive Director of the Committee on Infractions refers all allegations to an investigative staff. This is the *Enforcement Division* within the NCAA's professional staff, consisting of five full-time investigators (increased from two after the January 1975 convention). A preliminary investigation determines whether an official inquiry is warranted. The institution involved is notified promptly and may appear in its own behalf before the Infractions Committee.

Findings of the Infractions Committee and any resultant penalty are reported to the Institution which may, if it so desires, appeal the findings or penalty to the NCAA Council. After considering the report of the Infractions Committee and hearing representatives from the institution, the Council may accept the Committee's findings and penalty, alter either one or both, or make its own findings and impose a penalty it believes appropriate. In most cases, the Council upholds the Committee's ruling.

Programs/Activities

The NCAA administers at the national level a number of programs which impact directly on the development of Olympic sports in the United States. Several of these have been selected for brief discussion below.

NCAA supports research projects relating to sports inquiries, prepares and publishes pertinent articles in the NCAA News, works closely with the high school community regarding football inquiries, and keeps itself and members informed of related activities in the federal government, the media, and other organizations.

The NCAA has prepared and distributed drug education messages taped by NCAA athletes; has undertaken joint projects with the Drug Enforcement Agency within the federal government, including preparation of drug information booklets to be disseminated to members and other interested groups; and has selected Dr. Daniel F. Hanley, Olympic team doctor with information on Olympic drug testing, to serve on its Drug Education Committee.

An NCAA committee on Governmental Affairs recommends policies concerning federal legislation and regulatory bodies to the NCAA membership. This committee monitors and reports on activities in Washington, D. C. that have implications for intercollegiate athletic programs.

A meeting with representatives of 14 amateur sports organizations was called in 1974-75 by the NCAA's International Relations Committee. The purpose was to study and report on recent developments within the USOC and in other areas of international amateur sports administration. Those in attendance concluded that USOC restructuring plans passed at the December 1974 meeting were designed to maintain the status quo, to preserve the existing voting power structure within the USOC and within the administration of Olympic sports in general. This committee had earlier recommended to the NCAA that it supported the Tunney bill to create a Commission to study the organization of amateur sport in the United States. The NCAA had sent representatives to testify before Congress on proposed legislation for the reform of U. S. amateur sports and the NCAA is on record in support of S.3500, a bill introduced by Senator Pearson (see the Chapter on Previous Legislative Proposals for details of S.3500).

In support of the National Youth Sports Program, co-sponsored by the federal government, NCAA member institutions have contributed facilities and equipment, while the national office has contributed both funding and services. The National Youth Sports Program is co-sponsored by the federal government. Since the program's inception in 1969 about 276,835 economically disadvantaged youths have been taught swimming, baseball, basketball, gymnastics, volleyball, tennis, track and field, and modern dance by high school and college instructors at over 98 colleges and universities. Insurance, health education, counseling, meals and medical examinations also were provided to the participants. Contributions of money, facilities, and instructors from the NCAA and member institutions constitute about 40% of the program's resources. About 50% comes from the federal government and the remainder is supplied by state and local governments and businesses.

In 1949 the NCAA conducted a survey to determine the effect of live TV coverage on college football attendance. Results of the survey led NCAA institutions in 1951 to endorse overwhelmingly a plan to restrict such coverage of selected games.[4] Administered by the NCAA Television Committee, the plan has been reaffirmed by more than 90% of the NCAA membership in repeated votes.

Purposes of the controls are: 1) to reduce the adverse effects of live football coverage on game attendance and on athletic and physical education programs whose finances depend on that attendance; 2) to spread television exposure among as many colleges as possible; 3) to promote through television exposure both intercollegiate football and the overall interests of intercollegiate athletics; and 4) to entertain the public to the extent compatible with these other objectives.

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[4] Live television coverage of basketball apparently has not caused sufficient concern among the membership to warrant NCAA legislation.

The first objective has been attained admirably: total attendance has increased every year since 1953. In 1971 it exceeded 30,000,000 for the first time.

The NCAA's participating members received $16,000,000 in television rights in 1975, under terms of the Association's agreement with ABC TV. A six percent assessment was reserved for the Association. The income was used to cover television administration expense, to promote college sports and partially to fund the Postgraduate Scholarship program. Of the remainder, $500,000 was paid as rights fees for the Divisions II and III play-off games in 1975 and $150,000 was paid for rights to televise five NCAA championship events.

The remaining monies were remitted in full to the participating institutions under the terms of the contracts between the network and the individual institutions. As always, the network had the sole right of selection of the 1975 schedule. The network also determined the rights fees of $487,857 paid for a national game and $335,000 for a regional appearance.

These fees were subject to a six per cent assessment by the Association. The income was used to cover television administration expense, promote college sports and fund the Postgraduate Scholarship program.

The two-year football television contract requires that all colleges in an NCAA conference with eight or more major football institutions be guaranteed a minimum of three TV appearances in the two-year period, with a maximum of fourteen per year. All colleges in an NCAA conference with five to seven major football institutions should be guaranteed a minimum of two appearances in the two-year period with a maximum of fourteen appearances per year. All other football-playing colleges are guaranteed that twelve colleges from their number will be given a minimum of 24 appearances (and a maximum of 32) during the two-year period. The format for presentation of the series is mutually agreed upon in advance by NCAA and the network. The television network contracting with the NCAA also is required to televise annually the following: Division II and III football championships, at least five of the NCAA national championships in sports other than football or basketball, 12 football Highlights Shows, one football Season Review show, and three special football promotional shows. NCAA member institutions are free to contract with the network (ABC at present) for its own television appearance, provided these arrangements are consistent with the NCAA/ABC television contract.

NCAA also has a three-year contract with the NBC network to televise basketball tournaments. Provisions of this contract stipulate that the network must provide 1) national coverage of four of the 16 first round competitions, 2) regional coverage of four of the eight regional semifinal competitions (one game must be shown in each of four geographic regions), 3) regional coverage of all four regional championships (three games must be shown in each of the four geographic regions), 4) national coverage of the two national semifinal games, and 5) national coverage of the national championship. A television viewer in any given region, therefore, would be able to see a total of 11 games of the tournament series.

The NBC network must also televise one NCAA national championship in a sport other than basketball, football, or the five sports already chosen by ABC TV under its contract with NCAA.

Total receipts from the NBC TV contract are used first to cover expenses for the sponsors and participating teams (travel and per diem). Net receipts are distributed equally among NCAA headquarters (50% to the general operating budget) and the competing institutions (50% to these institutions, based on the number of games played). Over half of NCAA's general operating budget is derived from this contract with NBC.

The NCAA also tries to solicit television coverage from Public Broadcasting, Home Box Office, etc. for its other national championships. Last year, for example, Home Box Office agreed to televise the gymnastics national championships.

NCAA RULES AND THEIR EFFECT ON INTERNATIONAL COMPETITION

The NCAA is the most powerful of all the college athletic associations, both in terms of membership and finances.

It now has 829 members, consisting of 730 participating collegiate institutions, 59 athletic conferences, and 40 affiliated organizations. The NCAA is wealthy, having recently renegotiated its football contract with the ABC television network, as a result of which the network will pay $18 million a year for the next two years to broadcast NCAA football. A lesser, but still substantial sum (in the millions of dollars) is received from TV coverage of NCAA basketball games.

Approximately half of the NCAA's member institutions are state supported. The involvement of these public institutions in NCAA affairs has been deemed by numerous courts to be sufficiently extensive to constitute "substantial government involvement" in what would otherwise be a private voluntary association. Because of this "substantial government involvement," all appeals courts that have ruled[5] on the issue have determined that the NCAA's activities amount to "state action" and thus are subject to review under the equal protection clause[6] of the Fourteenth Amendment.

Equal protection cases generally have been reviewed using one of two judicial tests. The "strict judicial scrutiny" test is employed when a fundamental right or "suspect classification" is involved. Fundamental rights include the right of privacy and the right to vote, but not the right to an education, or the right to compete in athletics associated with one's education. "Suspect classifications" include, among others, those based upon race, alienage, and nationality. The other judicial test, when neither a fundamental right nor a "suspect classification" is at issue, simply requires that the rule or statute in question have a rational relationship to a legitimate state or associational purpose.

The NCAA supervises its domain by enforcing a complex, and at times confusing, body of rules and regulations. The Association's rules have been attacked on numerous occasions with mixed results. However, the following discussion is not so much a case by case analysis of litigation involving the NCAA as an examination of several Association rules which impede, or tend to impede, American athletes in international competition.

Generally, NCAA rules and regulations relate to amateurism and student participation, institutional control and responsibility, academic standards, financial aid, recruiting, ethical conduct, post-season and non-collegiate sponsored competition, playing and practice seasons, and eligibility of student athletes.

One NCAA rule, which has adversely affected U. S. athletes in the past, prohibits any "organized" basketball competition by NCAA basketball players, except while representing their institution in intercollegiate competition. The rule (Constitution 3-9-(c), pp. 17-18 of the *1975-76 NCAA Manual*) applies both during the basketball season and out of season. (Summer, non-school periods are also included.) Official Interpretation (O.I.) 17 to the rule states that outside basketball competition shall be considered "organized" if any of the following conditions exist:

> Teams are regularly formed or team rosters are predetermined; competition is scheduled and publicized in advance; official score is kept; individual or team statistics are recorded; team or league standings are maintained; official times or game officials are used; squad members are dressed in team uniforms; admission is charged, or a team is privately or commercially sponsored. Further, competition which is either directly or indirectly sponsored, promoted or administered by an individual, an organization or any other agency shall be considered organized.

In singular fashion, the rule grants an automatic exemption to residents of Puerto Rico competing in the Superior Basketball League of Puerto Rico. However, for collegiate athletes to represent the United States in international competition, NCAA Council approval must be sought and obtained even if the competition occurs during the summer.[7] The rule thus permits the NCAA Council to prevent NCAA basketball players from competing for the United States in the Olympic Games.[8]

Although the NCAA argues that exemptions have always been granted for the Olympics,[9] other international competitions have not been so fortunate. The NCAA Council refused, for example, to grant an exemption for the 1969 Maccabiah Games, a quadrennial competition designed to bring together the best Jewish athletes from throughout the world. Faced with loss of athletic eligibility and potential scholarship withdrawal, a number of NCAA athletes[10] decided not to compete in the Maccabiah Games.

Jack Langer, a basketball player from Yale University, did compete in the Maccabiah Games with the school's knowledge and permission. As a result of Yale's failure to rule Langer ineligible for further intercollegiate competition, the NCAA Council placed the school on probation for three years, and prohibited its athletes and teams from competing in NCAA championship events (in all sports, not just basketball) and on television (again, in all sports) for a like period.

A primary justification for the rule, the NCAA says, is its desire to eliminate gambling contacts in the summer basketball leagues. According to Walter Byers, Executive Director of the NCAA, "Basketball is the one college sport that's been burned twice by point shaving scandals . . . in all the investigations, or certainly most of them, it became apparent that many of the undesirable gambling contacts and associations developed in organized summer basketball leagues..."[11] Yet the NCAA has never contended that the Maccabiah Games were a haven for gamblers, nor would the Superior Basketball League of Puerto Rico appear any less immune to the influence of gamblers than other forms of organized basketball competition. Rather, the NCAA's failure to approve the 1969 Maccabiah Games basketball competition was really part of a larger strategy to wrest the U.S. basketball franchise away from the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU). Details of the strategy are more fully developed in the Volume I chapters entitled "Resolution of Franchise Disputes" and "Athletes' Rights." In brief, the NCAA sought to dramatize to the Federation Internationale de Basketball Amateur (FIBA) the weakness of the AAU's program by withholding collegiate basketball players from international competition. The result desired by the NCAA ultimately occurred in 1973 when FIBA revoked the AAU's franchise and awarded it to an NCAA-backed federation.

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[5] *Associated Students Inc.* v. *NCAA*, 493 F. 2d 1251, (9th Cir. 1974); *Parish* v. *NCAA*, 506 F. 2d 1028, (5th Cir. 1975); *Howard University* v. *NCAA*, 510 F. 2d 213, (D. C. Cir. 1975).

[6] ". . . nor shall any State . . . deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

[7] The official language reads, "The Council shall have the authority to waive this provision to permit student-athletes to participate in official Pan American or Olympic tryouts and competition, or participate in other international competition approved by the Department of State of the U. S. Government and sanctioned by the Council of the Association."

[8] All twelve of the players on the U. S.'s 1976 Gold Medal-winning basketball team were NCAA athletes, although four of them were recently graduated seniors not covered by the rule.

[9] ". . . the provision [Constitution 3-9-(c)] in the past has been interpreted as requiring such an approval by [by the NCAA Council] and . . . the USOC Basketball Committee has regularly sought and obtained such an approval as a matter of course." Statement by Michael Scott, Counsel for the NCAA, Transcript of Public Hearings of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports, April 10, 1976, p. 427.

[10] Andy Hill, UCLA; Steve Bilsky and Al Cotler, University of Pennsylvania; Eric Minken, Davidson; and Jack Azner, Cincinnati.

For sports other than basketball, a less restrictive rule applies. Subject to certain additional requirements pertaining to track and field and gymnastics described below, Constitution 3-9-(d) (*1975-76 NCAA Manual*, p. 18) permits out-of-season, non-collegiate amateur competition in all sports except basketball. The rule also permits an athlete to compete unattached; that is, not as a member of any outside team, even if such competition occurs during his school's intercollegiate season.

The special rules for track and field and gymnastics are contained in Bylaw sections 2-4 and 2-5 (*1975-76 NCAA Manual*, pp. 43-45). Essentially, these provisions require NCAA Extra Events Committee certification before NCAA athletes may compete in non-collegiate meets. These Bylaws "are designed to encourage well-managed competition" according to the NCAA. "The conditions of these two sports, particularly as to the increased activity of outside promoters, prompted the membership to adopt the legislation."[12]

While the intent is worthy, application of the bylaws can have some unfortunate results for our country's athletes. The 1973 indoor track meet between the United States and the Soviet Union, sponsored by the AAU, illustrates some of the potential problems. The AAU refused to apply to the NCAA for certification. The NCAA announced that if the AAU would apply, the meet would be certified, but that if no application were made, the meet would not be certified, and athletes who took part would risk the loss of their eligibility. Faced with this declaration, a number of NCAA athletes[13] passed up the opportunity to compete on the national team. Two athletes, Fred Samara[14] of the University of Pennsylvania and Dennis Walker of Adelphi University, competed in the meet despite the lack of NCAA certification.

Although reluctant to do so, Penn and Adelphi ruled Samara and Walker ineligible as a result of their competing for the U.S. in a non-certified meet. Failure to do so would have subjected the schools to penalties similar to those imposed upon Yale for Jack Langer's participation in the Maccabiah Games. Immediately after taking this action, both schools appealed to the NCAA Council, requesting that the athletes' eligibility be restored. The NCAA subsequently reinstated both Samara and Walker after each had missed one intercollegiate track meet.

Prior to their being ruled ineligible, Samara's and Walker's law suit seeking permanent injunctive relief against the NCAA was dismissed by the federal court hearing the case.[15] The court held, *inter alia*, that the NCAA's "requirement of certification for Extra Events ... bears a rational relationship to a legitimate state interest." It should be noted, however, that the court, in a rather unusual action, dismissed the case without prejudice to the athletes' again seeking judicial relief if any penalties were eventually imposed. Samara and Walker prepared to return to court after being ruled ineligible, but dropped their suit shortly thereafter when the NCAA quickly reinstated them.

The NCAA's five-year eligibility rule, (Constitution, 3-9-(a), *1975-76 NCAA Manual*, p. 17) also has negative implications for U.S. athletes. The rule requires an NCAA athlete to "complete his seasons of participation within five calendar years from the beginning of the semester or quarter in which he first registered at a collegiate institution." Certain activities, including time spent in the armed services, on official church missions, or with recognized foreign aid services of the U.S. Government (such as the Peace Corps) are excepted from the accountable period. However, as other portions of this report have indicated, many team sports on the Olympic program require long periods of intensive team preparation, perhaps as much as two years; this team preparation and participation is not exempt from the accountable period. Thus, the five-year rule is a source of potential difficulty for NCAA athletes in sports such as ice hockey and soccer, because it might require them to choose between losing a portion of their college eligibility in order to represent the country in international competition, or passing up the international experience to keep their full college eligibility.

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[11] Transcript of Public Hearings of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports, April 8, 1976, p. 83.

[12] NCAA's response to the President's Commission on Olympic Sports Questionnaire, Question Number 3.

[13] Barry McClure, Middle Tennessee State; Rod Milburn, Southern; Randy Williams, Southern California; Reginald McAfee, North Carolina; Jesse Stuart, Western Kentucky; and Chris Dunn, Colgate. Interestingly enough, Milburn, Stuart, and Dunn competed in the 1972 USA-USSR meet, which was also uncertified, without any penalties being imposed.

[14] Samara represented the United States in the 1976 Montreal Olympic Games.

[15] *Samara* v. *NCAA*, Civil Action No. 104-72-A (Unreported opinion, E.D. VA., 1973.)

Recognizing the problem, the NCAA has indicated a possible willingness to alter the rule to accommodate a member of a U.S. National Team, perhaps by adopting an exception similar to those granted for military service and the other activities mentioned above. Walter Byers, the NCAA's Executive Director, has stated, "I think we would have to look at the five year rule to grant some kind of relief for the National Team member, so that he can go do what he wants to do, and then still have an opportunity to come back and complete his college if he desired to do so."[16]

Another NCAA provision, commonly known as the tryout rule, does not directly affect U.S. athletes' international competitive efforts, but does hinder their potential for development. The rule (Bylaw 1-3, *1975-76 NCAA Manual*, p. 34) generally prohibits colleges from conducting tryouts at which student athletes display their athletic ability. Further, Official Interpretation 112 to the tryout rule states that "no member of an institution's coaching staff may conduct or participate in any coaching school or specialized sports camp involving a student who is eligible for admission to a member institution or who has started classes for his senior year of high school." (*1975-76 NCAA Manual*, p. 35.) Although attempting to serve a laudable purpose,[17] the rule and O.I. 112 have particularly serious repercussions in those sports where many of the potential world class athletes are younger than college-age, such as in swimming and gymnastics. Most top U.S. coaches in these sports are affiliated with the NCAA and, in addition to college coaching, many spend a great deal of time working with younger athletes. However, the tryout rule declares that coach-athlete contact must stop, with but few exceptions, when an athlete enters his senior year of high school. The resulting denial of established coach-athlete contact could be especially damaging if an athlete's senior year coincided with an Olympic year.

The NCAA, like the International Olympic Committee (IOC), supports the principles of amateurism in its athletic programs. The NCAA's Constitution states that a fundamental policy of the Association is to "retain a clear line of demarcation between college athletics and professional sports." (Article 2-2-(a), *1975-76 NCAA Manual*, p. 5.) An important section of the NCAA's Constitution is entitled "Principle of Amateurism and Student Participation." (Article 3-1, *1975-76 NCAA Manual*, pp. 6-13.) Yet the NCAA's definition of amateurism differs in some important respects from that of the IOC. In some instances the NCAA's rules are more liberal than the IOC's; for example, a professional athlete can still compete in all NCAA sports except the one in which he participates professionally. (Constitution, Article 3-1.) Such a sport-by-sport classification is not permitted by the IOC.

On the other hand, the NCAA's definition of amateurism is more restrictive than the IOC's in at least one important respect. The IOC now permits athletes to receive "broken-time" payments while still retaining their amateur status. These payments allow an athlete to receive his regular salary when in training for international competition and not actually working. Broken-time payments represent an acknowledgement by the IOC that a world class athlete, in order to be successful, must train on a full-time basis in many sports prior to international competition. The payments make it easier for an athlete to train and at the same time support his family and himself.

The NCAA, however, considers broken-time payments to be "a form of pay for participation rendering the recipient ineligible in the sport in which he participates for the pay."[18] Thus, the NCAA treats the recipient of broken-time payments as a professional, despite the fact that the IOC, the governing body for international amateur athletics, supports and encourages these payments.

Although the NCAA's Executive Director has indicated that the NCAA is in the process of reevaluating its policy,[19] the fact remains that, at present, the NCAA refuses to permit a procedure designed to aid, in a small way, America's amateur athletes.

Although doing so indirectly, the NCAA's scholarship structure tends to inhibit our country's best performance in many of the Olympic sports. As Glenn Terrell, President of Washington State University has indicated, 90 to 95 percent of the colleges and universities in the country are experiencing serious financial difficulties in their athletic programs. In an effort to make ends meet, many schools have cut back or eliminated programs in the non-revenue producing or "minor" sports. The non-revenue producing sports are, for the most part, the ones that appear on the Olympic calendar. The end result of these cutbacks, according to Mr. Terrell, is that "within a few years . . . our competitive position in the Olympic Games will have eroded badly."[20]

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[16] Transcript of Public Hearings of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports, April 18, 1976, p. 92.

[17] The NCAA states that "the restriction was adopted as a measure to prohibit tryouts of prospective student-athletes in sports camps or coaching clinics and to reduce the almost open-ended recruiting of prospective student-athletes by this means." (NCAA's response to the President's Commission on Olympic Sports Questionnaire, Question Number 28.)

[18] Letter dated July 19, 1976 from Walter Byers to Richard L. Krabach, Ohio Department of Administrative Services.

[19] "The question of 'broken-time' payments and other financial agreements for athletes participating on the U.S.A. Olympic Team or official senior U.S.A. National teams is currently under review by the NCAA Council." July 19, 1976 letter from Walter Byers to Richard L. Krabach, Ohio Department of Administrative Services.

One way to eliminate these reductions in the "minor" sports would be to award scholarships in all sports on a need basis only.[21] At present, NCAA regulations permit "full" scholarships (tuition and fees, room and board, course-related supplies and books) regardless of a recipient's or his parents' ability to finance his education. (Constitution 3-1-(f)-(1), *1975-76 NCAA Manual*, p. 8.) If scholarships were awarded on a "need" or "modified need" basis, and if the number of allowable scholarships remained constant, the budget for the more prestigious sports such as football and basketball could be considerably reduced, and, if not needed for non-sport programs, the savings realized could be employed to maintain or strengthen the so-called minor sports. It bears noting that these full scholarships, in many cases, represent several times more money to the recipient than broken-time payments, considered by the NCAA to be a "form of pay for participation."

NCAA "Principles Governing Financial Aid" (Constitution 3-4, *1975-76 NCAA Manual*, pp. 14-16) also require that most governmental grants for educational purposes, such as the Basic Educational Opportunity Grant (BEOG) be combined with any scholarship aid given on the basis of athletic ability. (Constitution 3-4-(b) (2), *1975-76 NCAA Manual*, p. 15.) If the combination of the two exceeds "commonly accepted educational expenses" at the student-athlete's institution, one or the other must be reduced, or the athlete will be declared ineligible. (Constitution 3-4-(b), *1975-76 NCAA Manual*, p. 14.) The BEOG program is, according to the application form, "a Federal aid program designed to provide financial assistance to those who need it to attend post-high school educational institutions. Basic Grants are intended to be the 'floor' of a financial aid package and may be combined with other forms of aid in order to meet the full costs of education."

The BEOG therefore is designed to act as a supplement to, or substitute for, parental support. As such, it is awarded to the most needy college students, regardless of their athletic ability. Although the NCAA allows unlimited parental support, (Constitution 3-4-(a) (1), *1975-76 NCAA Manual*, p. 14) it refuses to allow grants such as the BEOG unless the total value of the grant and athletic scholarship does not exceed "commonly accepted educational expenses." The practical result of such a policy is, of course, to discriminate against the indigent athlete; and, in broad terms, the policy leads to a dimunition of America's best effort in international competition as indigent athletes on scholarship drop out of school because of financial difficulties, or give up athletics in order to work part-time. The policy is even more troubling when one considers that other educational grants under a number of federal programs such as the War Orphans Educational Program, Social Security Insurance Program and Non-Service Connected Veteran's Death Pension Program may be received without regard to the amount awarded through an athletic scholarship. (Constitution 3-4-(b)-(2), *1975-76 NCAA Manual*, p. 15.)

The NCAA's policy regarding BEOGs has been successfully challenged in a recent federal case, *Wiley* v. *National Collegiate Athletic Association* (Case No. 76-83-C5, D-Kansas, unreported, 1976). The District Court found that requiring a reduction of a student's athletic scholarship, at least when his eligibility index is zero under the BEOG program (that is, when his parents are incapable of contributing at all to his education), "is totally irrational and contradictory to the purposes of the Association." If the District Court's opinion is upheld on appeal, the NCAA would, of course, be required to alter its policy regarding the BEOG program. Such a change would necessarily benefit such indigent athletes as Clifford Wiley. In a larger sense, however, the case touches upon the inherent contradiction in the NCAA's scholarship policy wherein full athletic grants-in-aid may be awarded without consideration of need. A change by the NCAA to basing grants-in-aid on need could lead, as previously indicated, to more scholarships (although they would not necessarily be as lucrative as they are now). It appears logical to conclude that, if the number of scholarships increases, the trend toward mediocrity in the Olympic sports mentioned by President Terrell could be halted or reversed.

As mentioned at the outset, the NCAA is a large and powerful organization. Too often, however, the Association's rules work to the detriment of the American athlete in international competition. Elimination or modification of the above-described rules would certainly not weaken either the Association or its member institutions, and at the same time would afford increased opportunity for our country's college athletes, who are, after all, the individuals the Association is designed to serve.

Accountability

Because the NCAA is subject to equal protection and due process provisions of the Fourteenth Amendment to the U. S. Constitution, its rules and procedures are subject to the test of reasonableness by the Federal Judiciary. Policies and the actions of NCAA interim committees also are subject to review by constituent members at each Annual Convention.

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[20] Transcript of Public Hearings of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports, April 10, 1976, pp. 398-399.

[21] A somewhat similar, modified need proposal was narrowly defeated (120 to 112) on a roll call vote of Division I schools at the 1976 NCAA Convention. The proposal would have allowed tuition and fees to be awarded on a non-need basis; need would have been employed to determine other portions of a grant, such as room and board and course-related supplies and books.

NCAA policy is determined by member school presidents or individuals designated by presidents, including faculty representatives, athletic directors, and in some instances, coaches. Student-athletes are involved in the policy-making and accounting processes only through their membership on athletic committees at their schools. Students in many colleges have sought and won greater student influence with regard to sports programs offered by educational institutions.

Recent Changes

Major changes in structure, rules and regulations have been voted on at recent NCAA annual conventions. Impetus for these changes has come from NCAA athletes, from various legal actions brought against the NCAA, and from major member institutions, especially football powers threatening to establish another organization more responsive to their needs. In particular, the major football institutions resented NCAA imposition of limitations on an institution's sports programs which benefit the smaller schools but handicap the bigger, more well-endowed schools. Also, the big football schools resented sharing revenues from their bowl games with the smaller schools.

In January 1976 the 70th Annual Convention reached a number of significant decisions. NCAA member institutions:

—Voted not to apply NCAA rules to all-women sports teams or to the coaches and administrators of those teams;

—Defeated a proposal to base athletic scholarships on need as well as on ability;

—Defeated a proposal to increase the permissible number of financial aid awards in certain sports (keeping the number of full scholarships available for minor sports to 80 per institution);

—Passed a proposal to eliminate squad size restrictions for home and visiting teams; and

—Defeated a proposal to require equal distribution of television revenues to all members sponsoring football programs.

At the 69th Annual Convention, NCAA passed a significant rule that an athlete could be classified an amateur in one sport even if he had signed a contract to become professional in another sport.

RESOURCES

Personnel

While the NCAA active membership increased 14.9% between 1966-67 and 1971-72, the number of full-time personnel involved in the administration of intercollegiate athletics, physical education, recreation, and other related activities increased by 35.9% and the number of part-time personnel jumped 52.7% in the same period for a total of 21,413 full-time personnel and 12,048 part-time personnel. The number of coaches (full- and part-time) rose 38.8% during that same period. In 1971-72 NCAA institutions employed 5,379 full-time coaches and 2,801 part-time coaches, for a total of 8,180 or a 38.8% increase over the 1966-67 total of 5,893. The number of coaches by sport[22] in 1971-72 are as follows:

Competitive Classification	*Totals for 663 Institutions*
Baseball	1,037
Basketball	1,717
Bowling	58
Crew	146
Cross Country	640
Fencing	133
Field Hockey	142
Football	3,009
Golf	719
Gymnastics	285
Ice Hockey	176
Judo-Karate	43
Lacrosse	296
Rifle	115
Rugby	42
Sailing	60
Skiing	136
Soccer	631
Softball	94
Squash	46
Swimming	652
Tennis	788
Track and Field	915
Volleyball	144
Water Polo	74
Weightlifting	34
Wrestling	554
Others	349
TOTALS	13,035

Facilities

NCAA member institutions own thousands of sports facilities. The following table shows the number of these reported in 1971-72. These facilities were valued[23] at a total of $1,545,917,580: $1,024,040,259 for indoor and $521,877,321 for outdoor facilities.

Nearly two-thirds of NCAA member institutions permit their facilities to be used by outside groups, largely for practice in sports on the Olympic calendar. However, it is not known how difficult it is for an organization to comply with requirements to be eligible to use a facility at a given school, how often the group may use the facility, or what priority the school gives to facility use by outside groups. On the next text page is a table showing the number of NCAA institutions permitting use of their facilities by which outside groups and for what purposes.

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[22] The total of 13,035 includes duplication of coaches being involved in more than one sport.

[23] Valuation includes sport buildings, stadiums, tracks, fields, fixed equipment and real estate upon which facilities have been constructed.

FINANCES

National

The NCAA is the best endowed of the multi-sport organizations associated with collegiate athletics, raising $2.9 million in operating revenues against only $2.4 million in operating expenses. As shown in Exhibit II over 50% of NCAA's revenues are provided by the annually televised collegiate basketball championships. NCAA's share of those funds amounted to $1.8 million in 1974-75. (Competing teams also received $1.7 million.) In addition, $16 million in football revenues was passed through the NCAA (minus a 6% assessment) to participating members.

The largest single expense category is personnel which amounted to $800,000. Unlike most other multi-sport organizations associated with collegiate athletics, the NCAA relies heavily on paid staff rather than on volunteers.

Some of the excess of receipts over actual operating expenses, plus an additional $482,500 of football TV revenues, is credited to general surplus; other portions are credited to appropriated reserve funds which are generally discretionary. After the legal reserve fund (for attorney fees and lawsuit settlements), the next largest reserve is the Sports Development Reserve which was appropriated $100,000 in 1975. This is designated to cover sports development activities that produce no revenue such as clinics, newsletters, and grants to other national organizations (e.g., U.S. Wrestling Federation), coaches associations, officials and judges associations, and public relations directors.

With surplus balances and reserve funds included in the overall NCAA budget, the total figure for

	1971-72, Number Institutions	*Institutions Number Units*	*1972-73*	
			Under Construction	*Approved for Construction*
INDOOR				
Archery Ranges	138	178	7	18
Basketball Courts	575	1,928	121	94
Bowling Lanes	218	1,595	61	6
Golf Driving Ranges	139	184	21	26
Gymnasiums-Field Houses	542	790	39	76
Handball Courts	372	1,485	198	172
Ice Rinks	72	83	9	7
Rifle Ranges	185	218	26	2
Roller Rinks	5	5		
Running Tracks	208	208	13	17
Swimming Pools	444	561	31	30
Tennis Courts	201	601	30	67
Wrestling Rooms	440	442	31	19
OUTDOOR				
Archery Ranges	272	389	3	4
Baseball Diamonds	295	943	12	40
Basketball Courts	529	653	23	14
Camping Areas	68	73		9
Football Practice Fields	459	1,072	33	15
Football Stadiums	412	412	5	11
Golf Courses	117	120	5	5
Golf Driving Ranges	143	151	3	12
Golf Greens	116	599	6	26
Ice Rinks	50	63		
Lakes	86	100	3	5
Play Areas	208	690	6	6
Ski Slides	40	44	2	
Soccer Fields	465	744	14	13
Softball Diamonds	428	1,867	48	29
Swimming Pools	118	142	8	9
Tennis Courts	583	5,737	167	213
Tracks	474	474	9	20
Trapshooting	19	19		5

*Includes Non-Collegiate Owned

EXHIBIT II

NCAA

Summary Financial Information — Fiscal Year 1975

	Basket-ball	Fencing	Gymnas-tics	Ice Hockey	Swimming	Skiing	Soccer	Track	Volley-ball	Water Polo	Wrestling	Non-Olympic Sports	Unallocated[1]	Operating Budget	Total
REVENUES:															
• Championships (incl. t.v.)	$1,696,900		$ 4,400	$9,400	$ 9,100			$ 16,000			$55,500	$257,000		$2,047,800	$2,047,800
• Football television assessments												883,300		400,800	883,300
• Publishing													280,000	280,000	280,000
• Membership Dues													91,200	91,200	91,200
• Statistics & Films													46,000	46,000	46,000
• Miscellaneous[2]													56,500	56,500	56,500
TOTAL REVENUES														2,922,300	3,404,800
EXPENDITURES:															
• Committees															
— Sports	6,907	2,444	1,570	2,070	5,150	1,779	3,977	6,691	1,070	690	4,568	17,304	—	54,709	54,709
— General													98,665	98,665	98,665
• Administration Departments and Costs															
— Administration													258,065	258,065	258,065
— Enforcement													219,126	219,126	219,126
— Publishing													321,574	321,574	321,574
— Public Relations													644,073	644,073	644,073
— Events													180,270	180,270	180,270
— Convention													60,373	60,373	60,373
• Grants	5,000												308,050	313,050	313,050
• General[3]													296,582	296,582	296,582
• Reserves															
— Sports Development													100,000		100,000
— Championships													187,172		187,172
— Other[4]													707,171		707,171
TOTAL EXPENDITURES														$2,410,487	$3,404,800
In addition, the following amounts were spent by host institutions on championship events	$785,548	$2,817	$26,808	$7,516	$45,066	$10,166	$51,722	$185,794	$9,570	$4,080	$88,064	N/A	N/A	N/A	$1,173,066

[1] Consists of membership revenues and general expenses not specifically generated by individual sports.
[2] Includes Registration Fees, Investments, and certain Public Relations/Promotions revenues.
[3] Includes Rent and Equipment Purchase, Legal Retainers, Contingency, and Miscellaneous.
[4] Includes Legal and other reserve funds.
[5] Source for these figures is the 1974-75 NCAA Annual Report of the Treasurer for General Income and General Expenditures.
[6] Source for these figures is an exhibit submitted by NCAA during testimony to the Commission, November 1975.

1974-75 is $3.4 million. Income to meet this $3.4 million NCAA figure comes primarily from four sources: meets and tournaments, football television assessment, publishing and dues.[24] NCAA-sponsored championships that year numbered 37, with paid attendance of 641,799 (604,444 in 1973-74) yielding $6,240,142 in gross receipts, primarily from basketball. Of that figure, 19.4% was used for game and administrative expenses, 47.3% for distribution to competing teams, 1.1% for sponsoring agencies and 32.2% for NCAA's general operating budget. Major categories of expenses are legal fees, sports development, and rent and debt retirement.

Exhibits III and IV show the major sources and uses of NCAA national monies in the 1974-75 academic year. These figures have been presented in accordance with accounting procedures that will be used by the NCAA starting in 1976-77 to give a better picture of income and expense line items. Reserves are included in the total budget shown in these same exhibits.

The NCAA controller is responsible for short-term investments of up to 90 days' duration. All other investments are handled by the United Missouri Bank of Kansas City. About $500,000 annually from dividends and interest goes toward the NCAA operating budget. This fund exists for "a rainy day." The NCAA's objective for long range return on investment is approximately five to six percent.

Member Institutions

Combined athletic operating budgets of NCAA member institutions total more than $535.5 million a year. This does not include figures for intramural and club activities, facilities or land. Of this total, $151 million, or 28%, represents straight subsidy of athletic programs by member institutions; $336.5 million represents money raised by competitive events and about $37 million is solicited through fund raising campaigns.

Member colleges face problems breaking even in some sports. For example, NCAA colleges subsidize the sport of wrestling by approximately $20

Use of Facilities — Service to Outside Groups

Permit Use *Yes*	*No*	*Number Participants*
435	228	619,757

Outside Agencies Using College Facilities Include:
- Alumni Groups
- Amateur Athletic Union
- American Legion
- American Red Cross
- Armed Forces
- Boy Scouts
- Boys Clubs
- Boys State
- Businessmen's Groups
- Chamber of Commerce
- Church Groups
- Community Recreation Associations
- Community Service Clubs
- Faculty Clubs
- 4-H Clubs
- Future Farmers Associations
- Girls' State
- Handicapped Children's Programs
- High School Athletics
  - A. Boys and Girls
  - B. Practice and Play
  - C. Local and State Competition
- Junior Chamber of Commerce
- Junior Colleges
- Local, State and Federal Government Employees Groups
- Local, State and Federal Welfare Programs
- Police Associations
- Private Recreation Clubs
- Veterans of Foreign Wars
- Women's Clubs
- YMCA
- YWCA

Types of Activities Conducted Include:
- Badminton
- Baseball
- Basketball
- Clinics in all sports
- Cross Country
- Dancing
- Football
- Free Play
- Ice Hockey
- Ice Skating
- Golf
- Judo-Karate
- Lacrosse
- Physical Fitness
- Relays
- Rodeo
- Roller Skating
- Soccer
- Softball
- Swimming
- Tennis
- Track
- Volleyball
- Wrestling

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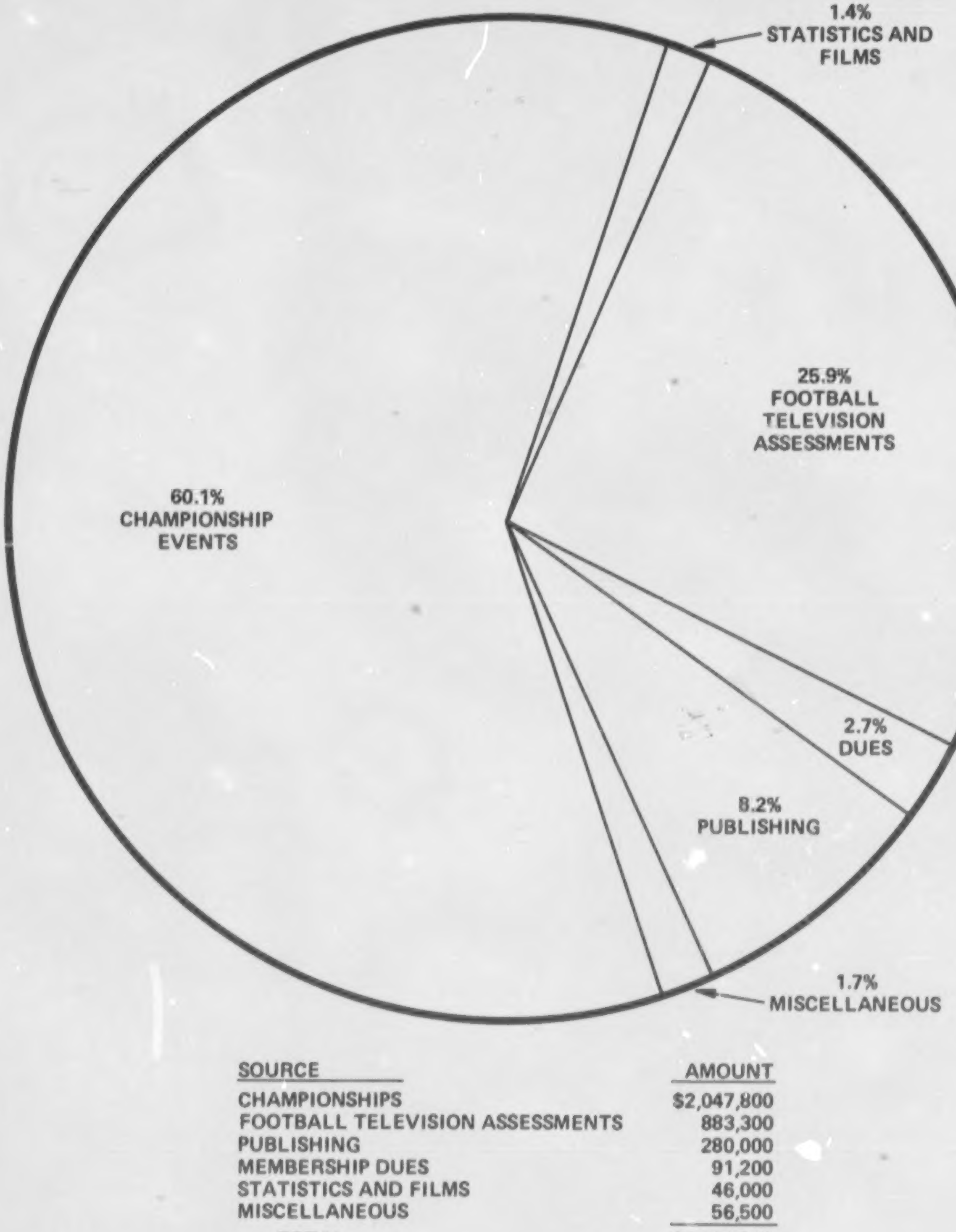
[24] Source: *NCAA News*, March 15, 1976.

EXHIBIT III

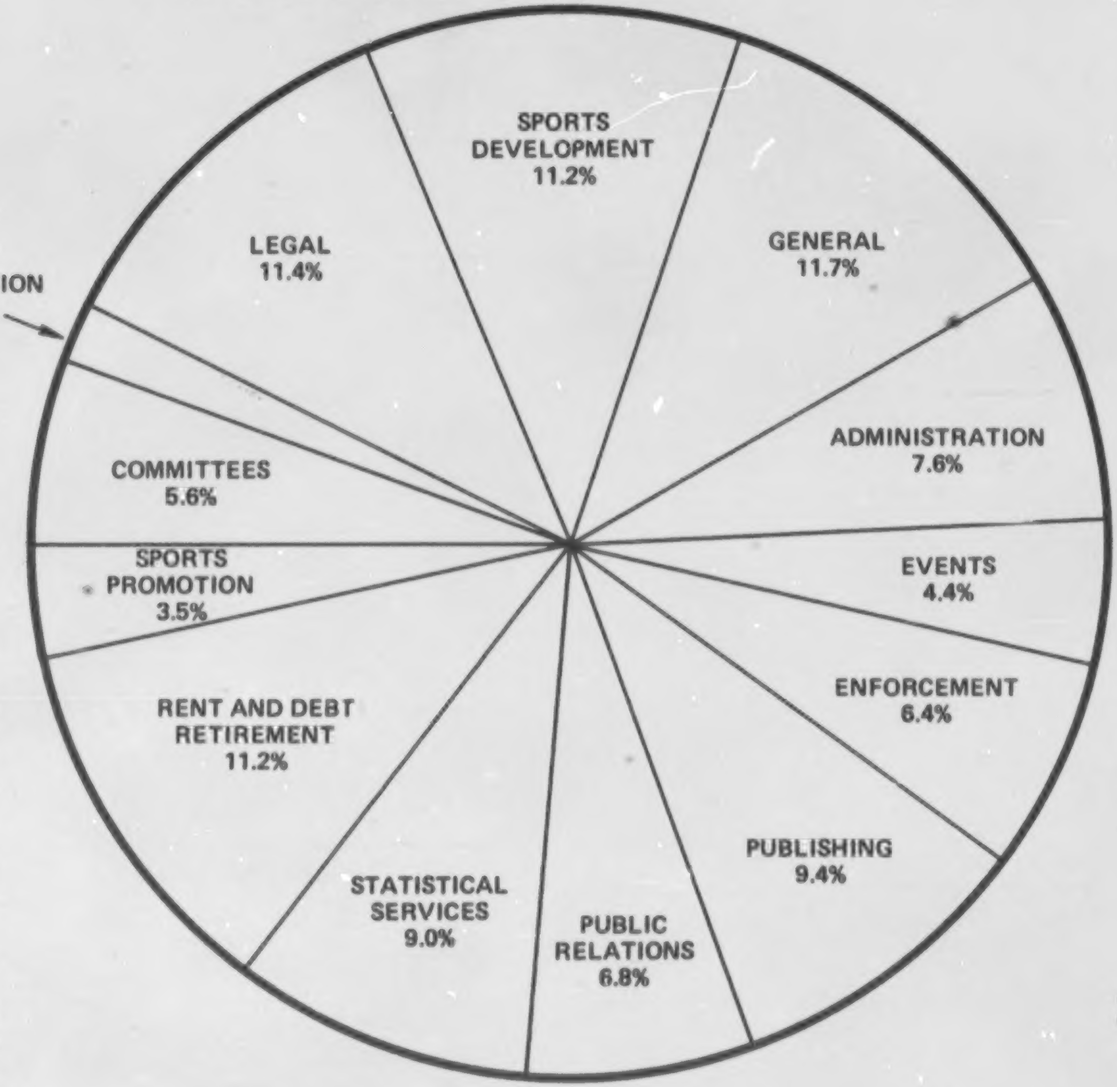
THE NATIONAL COLLEGIATE ATHLETIC ASSOCIATION
1974-75 INCOME



SOURCE	AMOUNT
CHAMPIONSHIPS	$2,047,800
FOOTBALL TELEVISION ASSESSMENTS	883,300
PUBLISHING	280,000
MEMBERSHIP DUES	91,200
STATISTICS AND FILMS	46,000
MISCELLANEOUS	56,500
TOTAL	$3,404,800

EXHIBIT IV

THE NATIONAL COLLEGIATE ATHLETIC ASSOCIATION
1974-75 EXPENSES



ITEM	AMOUNT
SPORTS PROMOTION	$ 117,600
COMMITTEES	192,500
CONVENTION	60,400
LEGAL	387,500
SPORTS DEVELOPMENT	382,600
GENERAL	397,300
ADMINISTRATION	258,100
EVENTS	150,300
ENFORCEMENT	219,100
PUBLISHING	321,600
PUBLIC RELATIONS	230,800
STATISTICAL SERVICES	305,300
RENT & DEBT RETIREMENT	381,700
TOTAL	$3,404,800

million; the NCAA knows of few, if any, member colleges able to balance income from wrestling matches with expenditures. It is estimated that track and field also is subsidized in the amount of $20 million, although track and field programs at some institutions make money.

In 1969 a comprehensive study of NCAA intercollegiate athletic programs was conducted by a special committee financed by the NCAA. The study showed average total revenues for all member institutions to be $571,000. Eighteen revenue sources accounted for 96% of total athletic revenues, amounting to $205 million in 1968-69, with seven sources accounting for 86% of the total. These leading sources of revenue included total ticket sales (48%), guarantees and options (11%), and student activity fees (10%). Four other sources, each accounting for less than 6% of total revenues, are student assessments unrelated to admissions, direct state or other government support, contributions and conference distributions or the equivalent for bowl games, and television and other events. The contribution of each source to total revenues remained relatively constant for the years between 1963-64 and 1968-69, inclusive.

Analyses of revenue by sport revealed that in 1968-69 intercollegiate football provided an average of 46% of total revenues for the 197 schools with major football programs. The average major football team grossed $960,000 in revenues that year, and had an operating profit margin of 30.5%. Basketball revenues accounted for an average of 22% of total revenues in those schools with basketball programs. Significant revenue sources within these two sports included the seven sources cited above, applicable to athletic programs as a whole. Contributions to total revenues generated by minor sports are relatively small. For example, average revenues in 1969 for track and field and swimming were $9,000 and $2,000, respectively; their average contributions to total revenues were 0.8% and 0.1%, respectively. Total NCAA football revenues for 1968-69 were about $145 million, while revenues from *all* sports were $205 million.

The average total expenditure for NCAA member institutions in 1968-69 was $548,000. Overall, 78% of total expenses are accounted for by five classifications. Over the decade from 1958-59 to 1968-69, grant-in-aid expenditures ranged from 21% to 23% of total expenditures, guarantees and options 13% to 16%, salaries and wages 23% to 31%, total travel 9% to 11%. Equipment held constant at 5%.

Analyses of expenditures by sport showed that football accounted for 40% of total expenditures among those NCAA schools with football programs. Basketball accounted for 20% of total expenditures for all NCAA schools. Grants-in-aid, guarantees and options, and coaches' salaries made up approximately 63% of total football expenditures and 53% of total basketball expenses for all NCAA schools in 1968-69.

During the academic year 1968-69, most NCAA member institutions with strong or major football programs (Division I schools) reported an excess of athletic revenue over expenditures. Since football accounted for 69% of the annual increase in total revenues and only 50% of the annual increase in total expenditures for major football schools in Division I, the growth in those schools' revenues was augmented primarily by football finances. Division II and III schools, however, reported generally having deficits in their athletic budgets. More than 50% of NCAA schools reported basketball deficits during each of the years 1958-59 through 1968-69. Schools with deficit balances found themselves relying upon institutional resources in order to run their athletic programs. In fact, the majority of all schools reported that they believed reliance upon institutional resources was appropriate to finance operating deficits in athletics, to absorb selected expenses, and to sustain non-revenue sports. Only the larger athletic departments have been set up like separate business enterprises to be entirely self-supporting. Nevertheless, those deficits in athletic operating budgets resulted in a number of schools cutting back their sports programs, a trend only slightly reversed.

Since 1968-69, deficits in institutional athletic budgets have become larger and more commonplace, due largely to trends in college football. Growth in game attendance has slowed drastically (partly because stadium capacity ceilings have been reached) and ticket prices have changed little, resulting in slowed revenue growth. At the same time, costs have been rising faster than income, while competition for audiences from professional football and other distractions has increased. One source (*Forbes* magazine, November 15, 1976) estimates that current football revenues in the NCAA are $200 million, with $280 million in revenues from all sports. NCAA institutions have adopted a number of ways to avoid deficits in their athletic budgets. Becoming one of the top football schools or being in a top conference (throughout which TV revenues are equally distributed, as discussed earlier) is one way. Another, more common method is to cut programs, starting with the most costly items.

As noted above, salaries and wages at NCAA member institutions from 1958-59 to 1968-69 accounted for 23% to 31% of all expenditures. Thus, when institutions cut back, staff is typically the first item reduced, followed by grants-in-aid (21% to 23% of total expenditures). The minor, non-revenue producing sports, including several Olympic sports, are usually the sports that suffer these cut backs most severely, since coaches and scholarship athletes in these can be reduced without comparable institutional losses of revenue and reputation.

Athletic scholarships from all NCAA institutions amount to approximately $154.5 million a year. In addition, NCAA National Headquarters annually awards post-graduate scholarships in the amount of $1,500 ($1,000 until 1975-76) to outstanding student-athletes. Athletic ability and scholastic achievement are considered on equal terms. The scholarships must be used within a certain period of time, eliminating athletes who enter professional sports immediately upon graduation. At present, 80 grants of $1,500 each are awarded annually to graduating seniors who participated with distinction in intercollegiate athletics and maintained at least a "B" average in the classroom. Football players receive 33 scholarships, basketball participants are awarded 15, and 32 awards are presented to varsity athletes in sports other than football and basketball in which the NCAA conducts national championship competition.

Budget Procedure for NCAA Competitions

A sports committee or sponsor wishing to host an NCAA competition must submit an application and proposed budget to the Executive Committee. Expenses directly related to hosting the competition are paid out of the gross receipts from the Competition. If the sponsoring institution uses its own facilities, it may deduct 5% of the net receipts to cover miscellaneous expenses incurred. The remainder of net receipts is distributed as follows:

A. For championships in which awards are made to individuals and teams:

- —8% goes to NCAA's general fund;
- —Award winners are reimbursed (in full or pro-rated) for actual travel expenses;
- —50% of the balance goes to competing institutions according to a formula based on the number of enrolled competitors who won awards;
- —50% of the balance goes to NCAA's general fund.

B. For championships in which only teams are awarded places:

- —Actual expenses and per diem of official travelling parties are paid (in full or prorated);
- —Expenses of sports committee are reimbursed;
- —50% of balance goes to competing teams' institutions based on a formula that varies according to the sport;
- —50% of balance goes to NCAA's general fund.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

The NCAA does not belong to any international organizations but does belong to the following national sports organizations:

- —U. S. Gymnastics Federation,
- —U. S. Track and Field Federation,
- —U. S. Wrestling Federation,
- —Amateur Basketball Association of the United States,
- —U. S. Baseball Federation, and
- —U. S. Collegiate Sports Council.

In addition, the NCAA works closely with the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA), The National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA), and, until recently, the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) to coordinate rules development.

AIAW

With the passage of Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972 requiring equal opportunity for women in sports, the NCAA and AIAW have arrived at a point of major disagreement over how women's intercollegiate programs should be administered in the colleges and universities. A joint AIAW-NCAA committee, formed in January 1975, had been addressing the following issues:

- —Development of common eligibility rules,
- —Proposals for an organizational structure, and
- —Feasibility of conducting joint sports activities.

However, major differences in planned approach to implementation of Title IX, aggravated by the NCAA's suit against the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) over the implementing regulations have caused this committee to cease most of its activities.

The NCAA seems to be in favor of women's sports programs, women's sport scholarships, Title IX, etc., but not at the expense of the male program (e.g., forfeiting male scholarships or cutting back the men's program). The NCAA also is opposed to the AIAW's proposal to merge the two organizations. (That proposal recommends that AIAW and NCAA be given an equal number of delegates on the NCAA Council and that the men's and women's delegates from each member institution be given one vote each.) The consensus seems to be that the AIAW and NCAA will not soon reach an agreement.

It is quite possible, however, that college presidents may force some agreement in the future. Since the rules of the two organizations differ significantly, lawsuits could eventually result, charging discrimination in rules applied by the two organizations to student-athletes attending the same institution.

For example, the AIAW allows a student-athlete to accept $1,000 in prize money in a given year (designed primarily for, but not limited to, golfers). The NCAA has no such rule. NCAA golfers could sue, on grounds that the lack of a similar NCAA rule is discrimination. In the event that a number of these suits occur, college presidents may be required to step in to resolve the inconsistencies, creating one set of rules applicable to both men and women student-athletes.

U.S. Olympic Committee (USOC)

The NCAA's relations with the USOC are summarized in the section of this volume covering the USOC. The relationship began in 1889 and has seldom been without problems, the cause of which is the divergence of the NCAA and the school/college community from the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) and the club sports community.

The NCAA claims that the AAU has tried to maintain a monopoly over various amateur sports in the U.S. and objects to AAU voting dominance in the USOC when many U.S. Olympic athletes are college students or school/college-trained athletes. In addition, the NCAA charges the USOC with unconstitutional uses of USOC development monies.

In 1972 the NCAA finally withdrew from the USOC for the reasons stated above and because of objections to the following portions of the USOC Constitution which were in effect at that time:

—The Sulger Amendment provides that national governing bodies (NGBs) must have majority representation on USOC Games Committee (repealed). The provision allowing a challenged NGB to retain its international franchise if it agrees to fulfill its obligations (under Article III, Section 3, of the USOC Constitution) "within a reasonable period"; and

—The Greenbriar Amendment, which required that before any national organization could seek affiliation with an international federation as a national sport governing body, it would have to obtain approval from two-thirds of the voting members of the USOC Board of Directors (changed to simple majority).

DEVELOPMENT

Individual NCAA members determine what sports will be offered at their institution. Students, coaches, faculty, or administrators at a college or university can apply pressures within the institution to have a new sport adopted. The institution may enter into intercollegiate competition with other institutions in its conference, using conference and NCAA rules. A sport can only be added to the NCAA Division Championship roster if a minimum of 45 member institutions in that Division sponsor the sport on an intercollegiate basis. Recent financial pressures have caused a trend toward reducing the number of sports offered, but that figure actually rose slightly in 1974-75, ending a three-year decline. Volleyball, tennis and soccer gained the largest number of sponsoring institutions. Cross-country, football and wrestling, on the other hand, suffered the largest percentage decreases in sponsorship. Exhibit VII presents sponsorship figures by Division.

Sports are offered in a variety of forms: required physical education classes, informal recreation, recreational clubs, intramural sports, and intercollegiate sports. Each category is discussed below, using statistics from academic year 1971-72 (the most recent year for which statistics are available).

Required physical education is experiencing a decline. In 1971-72, 60.9% of NCAA colleges required physical education for men while 55.8% required it for women, compared with 1966-67 figures of 78.5 and 68.8%, respectively. Sixty different sports were offered at various institutions. Based on numbers of participants, swimming and tennis were by far the most popular among both men and women: 65,595 men and 48,973 women participated in swimming classes, while 62,681 men and 50,318 women took part in tennis. Overall, a total of 301, 522 men and 305,060 women participated in required physical education programs.

NCAA member institutions provided facilities for more than 50 different informal recreational activities in 1971-72. A total of 4,082,043 students, faculty, staff members and townspeople took advantage of this opportunity. Swimming again was the most popular activity (936,435 participants), followed by basketball (461,255).

Recreational clubs, or "sports clubs," were sponsored in more than 50 activities in 1971-72 with a total of 85,948 participants (69,562 men and 16,386 women). This figure represents an increase for men but a decrease for women from 1966-67, the latter partly explained by the significant increase in women's intercollegiate athletic programs. More men took part in Judo-Karate Club activities than in any other (7,944 to skiing's 5,290 and rugby's 5,135). Basketball (2,276) and volleyball (2,186) were the most popular club sports among women.

Intramural sports participation increased significantly for both sexes, up 35.7% from 1966-67. Overall, a total of 1,676,995 men and 276,167 women participated in more than 50 intramural sports in 1971-72. These figures represent participants and not

Sports Sponsorship
1974-75

Division I

	Total	*Pct.*
Total Members	238	
1. Basketball	236	.992
2. Golf	231	.971
3. Tennis	226	.950
4. Baseball	220	.924
5. Track	214	.899
6. Cross-Country	206	.866
7. Swimming	170	.714
8. Wrestling	154	.647
9. Soccer	130	.546
10. Football	127	.534
11. Gymnastics	73	.307
12. Rifle/Pistol	52	.218
13. Fencing	45	.189
14. Lacrosse	39	.164
15. Ice Hockey	33	.139
16. Rowing	30	.126
17. Water Polo	29	.122
18. Skiing	27	.113
19. Volleyball	27	.113
20. Sailing	13	.005
21. Squash	10	.042
22. Bowling	9	.038
23. Rugby	6	.025
Average sports per institution	9.7	

Division II

	Total	*Pct.*
Total Members	183	
1. Basketball	182	.995
2. Tennis	166	.907
3. Golf	163	.891
4. Baseball	161	.880
5. Football	143	.781
6. Cross-Country	136	.793
7. Track	123	.672
8. Swimming	86	.470
9. Wrestling	84	.459
10. Soccer	74	.404
11. Gymnastics	34	.188
12. Lacrosse	19	.104
13. Ice Hockey	17	.093
14. Skiing	15	.082
15. Rifle/Pistol	14	.077
16. Volleyball	13	.071
17. Water Polo	13	.071
18. Fencing	8	.044
19. Sailing	8	.044
20. Rowing	6	.033
21. Bowling	4	.022
22. Squash	—	
23. Rugby	—	
Average sports per institution	8.0	

Division III

	Total	*Pct.*
Total Members	275	
1. Basketball	271	.985
2. Tennis	251	.913
3. Baseball	244	.887
4. Golf	235	.855
5. Cross-Country	226	.821
6. Soccer	211	.737
7. Track	208	.756
8. Football	200	.727
9. Wrestling	165	.600
10. Swimming	145	.527
11. Lacrosse	63	.229
12. Ice Hockey	52	.189
13. Fencing	37	.135
14. Skiing	29	.105
15. Volleyball	27	.098
16. Gymnastics	26	.095
17. Rifle/Pistol	24	.087
18. Bowling	20	.073
19. Water Polo	15	.055
20. Sailing	12	.044
21. Rowing	12	.044
22. Squash	11	.040
23. Rugby	2	.007
Average sports per institution	9.0	

individuals, since an individual is counted in each intramural sport in which he or she participates. The most popular men's intramural sports were basketball (362,375 players), softball (309,608) and touch football (296,876). Popular women's intramural sports were volleyball (61,144), softball (51,083) and basketball (49,871).

Intercollegiate sports programs for women increased considerably between 1966-67 and 1971-72. The number of women participating in intercollegiate athletics more than doubled to a 1971-72 total of 31,852. Leading the list of sports were basketball, tennis, volleyball and field hockey, with softball, swimming and gymnastics also showing marked increases in sponsorship.

Of the 663 active NCAA institutions in 1971-72, 313 sponsored two or more intercollegiate activities for women. A total of 186 schools offered five or more sports, and 26 offered 10 or more, the highest offering being 13.

Although the number of intercollegiate sports for men in 1971-72 increased slightly from the 1966-67 report, squad sizes were reduced in some non-revenue-producing sports. Basketball and baseball continued to reflect the widest sponsorship: 658 schools had basketball programs and 616 had baseball programs in 1971-72. Cross-country and golf made notable jumps in popularity, but football remained the No. 1 participation sport in intercollegiate athletics, registering the greatest participation gain since 1966-67.

The ranking below is based on the number of colleges with programs in each sport:

	No. Institutions	*No. Participants*
1. Basketball (1)*	658	16,760
2. Baseball (2)	616	19,487
3. Tennis (3)	608	7,445
4. Golf (5)	604	6,795
5. Cross-Country (7)	556	9,194
6. Track and Field (4)	535	19,190
7. Football (6)	465	42,187
8. Wrestling (8)	393	9,437
9. Swimming (9)	382	8,667
10. Soccer (10)	351	12,024

*Figure in parentheses represents the sport's ranking in 1966-67.

A total of 172,447 student-athletes participated in the 32 men's intercollegiate sports offered in 1971-72, an increase of 18,268 or 11.8% since 1966-67.

Of the 28 Olympic sports, only 10 are sponsored by NCAA institutions at the national or divisional championship level. These are basketball, fencing, gymnastics, ice hockey, skiing, soccer, swimming, track and field, volleyball and wrestling. Olympic sports without NCAA intercollegiate programs are bobsled, boxing, judo, luge, weightlifting, canoeing, bicycling, equestrian, figure skating, pentathlon and biathlon, speed skating, and team handball. Shooting (rifle and pistol) and sailing are offered on an intercollegiate basis. Archery and field hockey are contested at the intercollegiate level, but only for women.

COMPETITION

National Championships

In 1974-75 a record number of student-athletes, 11,216 participated in 37 NCAA championship events. Of the 18 sports in which these championships were held baseball and basketball had the most participants. Division I, basketball, Division II football, and Division I baseball championships had the highest paid attendance and gross receipts for the year 1974-75.

The National Collegiate Championship series, which began with a tennis tournament in 1883, has been conducted by the NCAA since 1921. National College Division Championships began in 1957 and were held in 10 sports by 1973. The 1973 NCAA reorganization created three competitive divisions, with 17 National Collegiate (Division I) Championships, 12 National Collegiate Division II Championships and 10 National Collegiate Division III Championships.

Division II and III members may elect to participate in Division I in one sport other than football or basketball. In those sports for which no Division II Championships are offered, members of that division are eligible to compete in the Division III Championship. In sports for which there are no Championships in Division II or III, all members are eligible for the National Collegiate Championships (Division I). Inter-divisional eligibility for Championships may change as a result of the January 1977 NCAA Convention.

Sports which hold championships in all three divisions are baseball, basketball, cross-country, golf, soccer, swimming, tennis, outdoor track and wrestling.

Gymnastics and lacrosse are offered in Divisions I and II only. Sports in which there is but one National Collegiate Championship are fencing, ice hockey, skiing, indoor track, volleyball and water polo.

In August 1976 the NCAA Executive Committee voted to guarantee 80% of transportation expenses for teams and individual medal winners for the NCAA's 39 national championships, effective fiscal year 1976-77. A reserve fund of $800,000 was established to help defray expenses for more than 4,200 student-athletes, coaches and other official team members. Championships which already generate revenue sufficient to reimburse participating schools for travel and per diem will not be affected.

Many foreign athletes are enrolled in NCAA member institutions and participate in intercollegiate competition, particularly in the Olympic sports. In some sports they have won the majority of first places at the nationals (e.g., track and cross country). Foreign athletes frequently make up intercollegiate teams in soccer and ice hockey and, to a lesser extent, in basketball, wrestling, fencing and swimming. This has spurred great debate within the NCAA, since these athletes are taking both scholarships and places on teams that otherwise would go to U. S. citizen athletes. At the same time, however, the situation illustrates the drawing power of high quality of U. S. intercollegiate athletic programs.

International Competition

Basically, college coaches and college sports are geared to collegiate / conference competition. Achievement at the national and international level generally depends on the historical strength of an individual college or conference in a particular sport, and/or the recruiting or interest level of a coach or an athletic director in a given sport.

Athletic directors and coaches asked about international competition generally respond in one of two ways. On one hand they say, "Tell us what to do and we will do it, but give us a voice in the decision making." On the other hand, some say, "Don't interrupt our team preparation for intercollegiate competitions." There was further indication that international competition would be supported by NCAA affiliates but not at the expense of college programs.

Of the 94 total Olympic medals won by the U. S. at the 1976 Summer Games, 48 were won by male athletes who had participated at or were still attending NCAA member institutions. If only medals won in sports sponsored by the NCAA at the intercollegiate level are counted, male athletes with current or former NCAA affiliation won 47 of 56, or 84% of those medals. The number of medals won by male athletes currently enrolled in NCAA institutions is, of course, less than these figures reflect.

The NCAA has been actively involved in trying to reorganize U. S. amateur sports. In the early 1960s, the NCAA invited prominent national amateur sports organizations to meet together to discuss the administration of amateur athletics in the U. S. The group, representing high schools, junior colleges, the military and other major multi-sport organizations except the AAU, agreed that in some Olympic and Pan American sports, particularly those under the AAU umbrella, the national governing body was not representative of national organizations with significant development programs in those sports. With NCAA financial and administrative support, the attending organizations formed federations in five sports — baseball, basketball, gymnastics, wrestling, and track and field. These federations provided representation for national organizations from 1) the school/college community, 2) the military, 3) the club networks, and 4) other groups such as the American Turners. These federations were set up in direct opposition to the existing national governing body — the AAU — and gave rise to interorganizational disputes over rules, competition sanctions, athletes' rights, and scheduling. At the same time, however, opportunities for national and international competition, tours, and exhibitions were increased many fold. In two sports, gymnastics and basketball, the federations successfully wrested the franchise from the AAU, and the AAU subsequently joined those organizations.

As discussed earlier, the NCAA withdrew from the USOC in protest in 1972. One of its reasons was to spur what it believed were needed changes in the USOC structure. After the USOC voted to restructure itself in 1974, the NCAA filed a joint suit with the U. S. Gymnastics Federation against the USOC, claiming that the USOC had violated its own Constitution at the meeting in the adoption of certain bylaws.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The NCAA is a large and influential membership organization. While it has been charged by its membership primarily to implement policy, the NCAA increasingly has been initiating activity at the national level. In particular, its enforcement activities have been expanded by additions to the staff in that division and by aggressive action on the part of the NCAA to enforce its rules. Recently, individual member institutions have become more vocal about resisting what they consider to be the sometimes heavy-handed enforcement policy and substantial influence of the NCAA national administration. Much of this dissatisfaction arises in large colleges and universities with major football programs. These institutions are primarily interested in receiving a larger share of receipts and TV profits from football games in which their institutions participate, while having fewer restrictions placed on their athletic programs. The smaller colleges, which dominate the voting of the NCAA convention, naturally want just the opposite.

The various sets of NCAA rules — which must be consistent with the educational requirement of member institutions — seem to cause colleges and universities some trouble. Intercollegiate athletics do not always operate under a consistent set of rules, policies, and regulations which apply equally to all member institutions or to all divisions of member institutions. In many cases, conflicting or outdated rules have worked against the athlete who wanted to compete in a program other than that offered by his college or university. In some cases, discrepancies have been corrected or exceptions allowed. Nevertheless, a number of current and former college athletes have been hurt by these rules or policies.

The NCAA as an entity does not — nor does it have the responsibility to — stimulate directly either the introduction or growth of new sports at the college and university level. The decision to offer a new sport is strictly that of the individual member, based primarily on the school's financial ability to support new programs. However, because they pay activities' fees to the school for purposes of athletic programs, students recently have become increasingly assertive about their right to determine how those monies are used, and what sports should be offered.

The NCAA does, however, spend some money in sports development. It makes grants to federations and coaches associations, conducts sports promotion activities, and administers national and divisional sport championships, etc. One notable program is the National Youth Sports Program, administered in conjunction with the federal government. This program provides recreational opportunities for disadvantaged youths all over the U.S. Also the NCAA national office annually awards scholarships to 80 post-graduate students in the amount of $1,500 per year.

Indirectly, the colleges and universities have made both positive and negative contributions to the Olympic movement. Half of the country's youth enter colleges and universities, many of which are affiliated with the NCAA. At these institutions, students are offered the opportunity to participate in sports programs of considerable scope and depth, and are generally exposed to sound training and good quality coaching. Highly talented student-athletes also are eligible to receive scholarships to help support their education. Many student-athletes, both during and after their college careers, qualify for international teams, illustrating the significant contribution of the collegiate program to their development even though they often do not reach their athletic peak while they are still in school.

Occasionally, however, student-athletes have suffered from the way in which various NCAA rules and regulations have been interpreted. While NCAA rules were developed to protect the student-athlete, they sometimes have been used in ways that deny athletes the right to compete in events outside NCAA jurisdiction. This has occasionally prevented the U.S. from fielding its very best athletes in international competition and created controversy among organizations involved with amateur sports.

The NCAA has been directly involved in the Olympic movement in a number of ways. It was a prime force behind calling together various amateur sports organizations and establishing federations in several of the Oympic and Pan American sports. These federations, in baseball,[25] basketball, gymnastics, track and field, and wrestling, were designed to be an alternative to NGBs allegedly not representative of the constituent groups in those sports. The federations offered equal representation to the military, the school/college community, athletic clubs, and any other national level organizations with quality programs in that sport. These federations have become rivals of the AAU, which held or still holds franchises in many of the abovenamed sports. (The basketball and gymnastics federations, however, secured the franchises from the AAU.) Despite that, even the AAU admits that the creation of the federations has stimulated activity and development in those sports.

After the 1972 Olympics the NCAA withdrew from the U.S. Olympic Committee. Its stated rationale was that it was unwilling to belong to an organization it considered to be so unfairly balanced in its voting power (allegedly in favor of the AAU), and so ineffectual in carrying out its responsibilities. Still, the NCAA indicates it is willing and ready to participate in any National Olympic Committee within the U.S. so long as it has reasonable and proportionate representation in that body and so long as that Olympic Committee has taken meaningful steps toward a more effective restructuring of itself.

Finally, the NCAA actively lobbied on various congressional legislation proposed in 1973-74. In particular, it opposed establishment of any organization that would interfere with its autonomy. At the same time, it supported a strong arbitration mechanism for settling franchise disputes, a funding mechanism with an objectively selected board, and major restructuring of the USOC. In the process, the NCAA demonstrated that it has an extremely effective and readily mobilized lobby in the U.S. Congress.

Any effort to improve development of amateur athletics in this country clearly must involve the NCAA in an integral manner because of its stature, resources, and contributions to sport. The NCAA's willingness to join and support an objective and fair organization to promote the Olympic sports is tempered by its insistence that such a body allow existing organizations to continue their domestic sports programs and that the actions of such a central organization be consistent with the NCAA's philosophy concerning the role of athletics in the education process. The NCAA has also indicated it will cooperate in efforts to encourage involvement of school and university athletes in international competitions such as the Olympic and Pan American Games. The NCAA has stated that it will voluntarily join and support any organization which is working in the best interest of U.S. athletes for the purpose of international competition.

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[25] The sport of baseball is not presently on the Olympic calendar, although it is played in the Pan American Games.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF STATE HIGH SCHOOL ASSOCIATIONS

NFSHSA

The National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA or the Federation) consists of the fifty individual State High School and/or Activities Associations (and the District of Columbia). Affiliated with the Federation are nine Canadian provinces, Puerto Rico, Guam, the Philippines, and the Virgin Islands. The Federation's goal is to ensure coordination and cooperation among organizations conducting interscholastic programs. As a service organization, NFSHSA assists its members and affiliates in areas such as dissemination of rulebooks, training manuals, and teaching aids. The Federation also represents the views of the high schools before various national and international sports organizations and at all levels of government.

Few athletic organizations in the world can match the magnitude of the programs offered by NFSHSA members. More than 20,000 high schools and 3 million boys and girls participate in interscholastic competitive programs. During the past year, the nation's secondary schools conducted more than a half-million varsity basketball games, 70,000 swimming and diving meets, a quarter-million track meets, and an equivalent number of football and baseball games. These and other programs were conducted in more than 20,000 gymnasiums, on 17,000 running tracks, and in 4,000 swimming pools. From this prolific source comes the great majority of U. S. world class athletes and their coaches.

Despite its size and potential influence, however, NFSHSA is charged by its membership primarily to implement, not innovate, policy. The Federation is not a regulator of high school athletic programs, nor is it intended to be. Furthermore, on behalf of its membership, the Federation has acted vigorously and in large part successfully to prevent any "outside organization" (including the federal government) from imposing policy on interscholastic athletic activities. NFSHSA has testified before the Commission that ". . . the National Federation will work diligently to assure no Government or private agency attempts to interfere in the use of school-operated facilities and with regularly scheduled, school sponsored athletic events . . ."

This seemingly insular attitude is not entirely misplaced, as it reflects the authority of local school boards and state education authorities to establish policies within their own jurisdictions. However, interscholastic athletics have not always operated in the purest sense of the word "federation." There is no consistent set of rules, policies, and regulations that apply equally to high schools throughout the country. In many cases, conflicting or outdated rules work against an athlete who wishes to compete in a program other than the one offered by his/her high school. In some cases, discrepancies have been corrected and exceptions allowed. Indeed, NFSHSA has published a set of criteria to assist state associations and individual high schools in making these exceptions. However, these guidelines have seldom been followed. Until there is general agreement among all state associations and, more important, among individual high schools and parents regarding policy in this vital area, unnecessary and unintended restrictions, which prevent high school athletes from competing in post-season, national or international events, will continue to occur. The result can be a barrier to the participation of high school athletes in international competition.

Because of the overriding and largely commendable policy that high school athletic programs be conducted within the total educational framework, NFSHSA has concentrated its efforts on services it can offer high school athletes, coaches, trainers, and administrators. Rarely, however, has it asserted its influence to improve the structure of amateur sports nationally, except to defend its exclusive authority in the high schools. Although it is a member of the U. S. Olympic Committee (USOC) and of four national governing bodies, it has often refused to work with the so-called "club" organizations, such as the AAU. NFSHSA expresses concern for the welfare of its athletes, but this concern has sometimes worked against the efforts of high school athletes to take part in national and international competition. Furthermore, the Federation has not always been successful in impressing upon high schools the importance of protecting athletes from the unscrupulous recruiting practices of some college coaches and alumni, who sometimes exploit talented athletes solely to bring fame and glory to the college.

In short, NFSHSA has not always been given the authority by its membership to assert strong, national leadership in the development of amateur sports, both in and out of interscholastic programs. Until such authority is granted universally, Federation policies will continue to project a highly protective and even defensive image, one not conducive to the broad development of amateur sports.

ORGANIZATION

History

Nearly a century ago, high school athletic competition was introduced in the form of what is now known as intramural programs. As time went on, students began organizing clubs which competed in sports against clubs in other schools.

In order to ensure that students competed under proper supervision and within the framework of accepted educational objectives, schools began to sponsor the clubs and to arrange interscholastic competition. Gradually, the schools organized, at first regionally, and then statewide, forming associations charged with regulating competition within their jurisdictions.

As interscholastic competition grew, sectional and national tournaments were organized, involving the best athletes and teams. In 1920, following charges that these events were run primarily for profit and with little regard for the athletes involved, L. W. Smith, secretary of the Illinois High School Activities Association, called a meeting of associations in neighboring Midwestern states to discuss these problems.

Representatives from four states bordering Illinois responded to Smith's invitation and the Midwest Federation of State High School Athletic Associations was formed. Gradually, other states became members, and in 1922 the Federation adopted its present name. In 1940, a national office with a full-time staff was established in Elgin, Illinois, where it continues to serve as national headquarters.

Structure

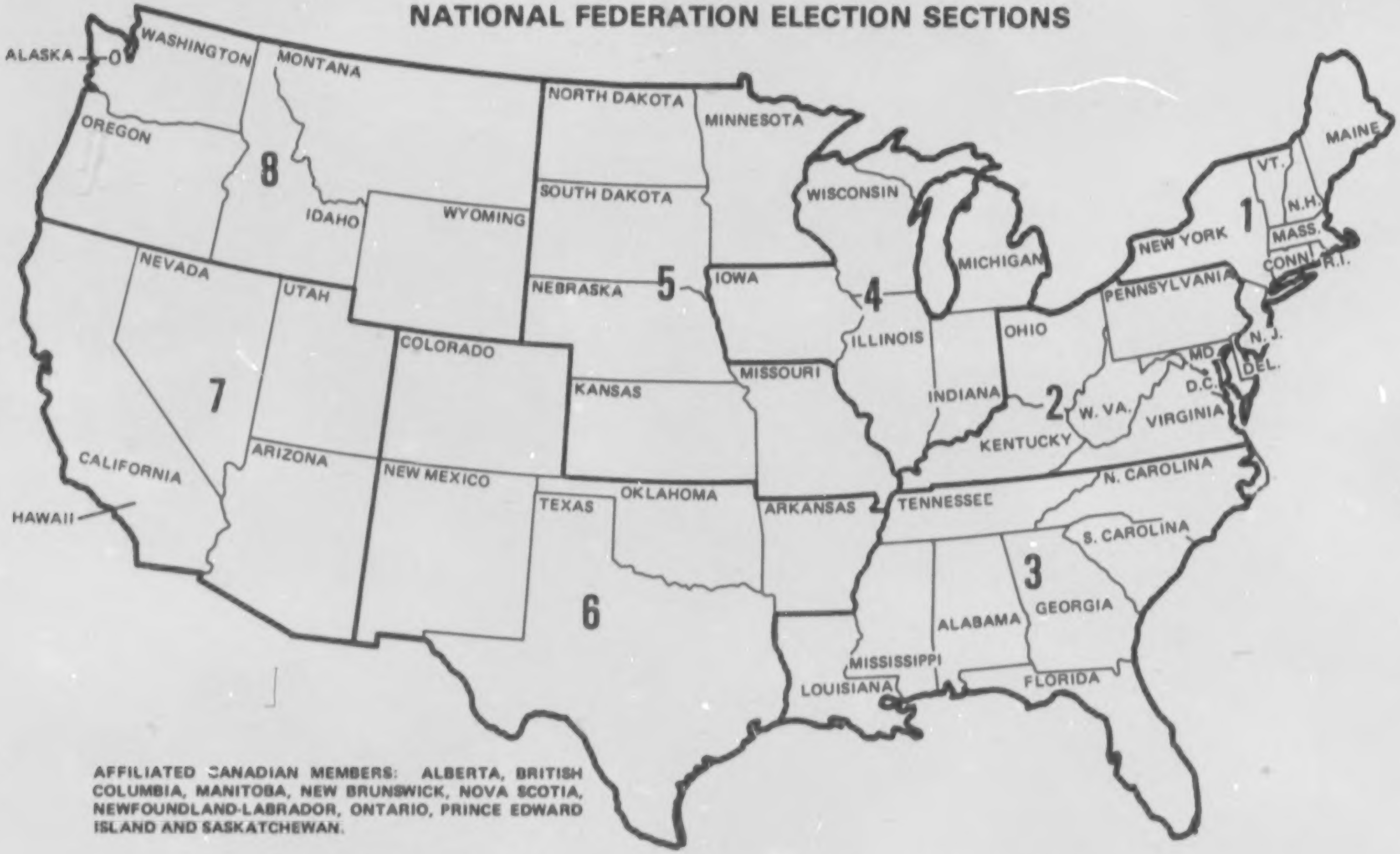
NFSHSA's legislative body is the National Council, consisting of one representative from each state association. Each state representative must be a member of a board of control, the governing unit of the state high school athletic association which he or she represents. Each state representative is entitled to one vote at annual or special meetings. (Delegates from affiliated members are entitled to a voice but no vote at annual and special meetings.)

The Executive Committee of the Federation is responsible for its administration. It consists of eight members elected by the National Council for staggered three-year terms. No member of the Executive Committee may serve more than three terms. Executive Committee members are elected in such a manner that each represents a "section" of the country. Sections are geographically defined groups of states, drawn so that each has approximately the same number of high schools (see Exhibit I). Membership on the Executive Committee is limited to members of boards of control, commissioners, or executive secretaries of state associations.

Officers of the Federation are the President, Vice President, and the Secretary-Treasurer, elected by the Executive Committee for one-year terms. No individual can serve as President longer than five years. The Secretary-Treasurer, who may serve as many terms as the Executive Committee believes appropriate, is also the Executive Secretary of the Federation, a full-time, paid staff position. The Executive Secretary is responsible for day-to-day management of NFSHSA headquarters.

In addition to annual and special meetings of the National Council, the Federation sponsors sectional and annual national conferences, attended by the executive secretaries of the state associations to discuss common problems and exchange ideas regarding the administration of

EXHIBIT 1
NATIONAL FEDERATION ELECTION SECTIONS


ALASKA
WASHINGTON
MONTANA
NORTH DAKOTA
MINNESOTA
MAINE
OREGON
8
VT.
WISCONSIN
1
N.H.
SOUTH DAKOTA
IDAHO
WYOMING
MASS.
NEW YORK
MICHIGAN
CONN.
R.I.
NEVADA
NEBRASKA
5
IOWA
4
PENNSYLVANIA
UTAH
ILLINOIS
OHIO
COLORADO
N.J.
MD.
DEL.
MISSOURI
7
KANSAS
D.C.
INDIANA
2
W. VA.
VIRGINIA
KENTUCKY
CALIFORNIA
ARIZONA
NEW MEXICO
N. CAROLINA
OKLAHOMA
HAWAII
TEXAS
ARKANSAS
TENNESSEE
S. CAROLINA
3
GEORGIA
6
ALABAMA
MISSISSIPPI
LOUISIANA
FLORIDA

AFFILIATED CANADIAN MEMBERS: ALBERTA, BRITISH COLUMBIA, MANITOBA, NEW BRUNSWICK, NOVA SCOTIA, NEWFOUNDLAND-LABRADOR, ONTARIO, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND AND SASKATCHEWAN.

SECTION 1 (NORTHEAST) CONNECTICUT, MAINE, MASSACHUSETTS, NEW HAMPSHIRE, NEW JERSEY, NEW YORK, RHODE ISLAND AND VERMONT. SECTION 2 (MIDEAST) DELAWARE, DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, KENTUCKY, MARYLAND, OHIO, PENNSYLVANIA, VIRGINIA, WEST VIRGINIA. SECTION 3 (SOUTH) ALABAMA, FLORIDA, GEORGIA, LOUISIANA, MISSISSIPPI, NORTH CAROLINA, SOUTH CAROLINA, TENNESSEE. SECTION 4 (CENTRAL) ILLINOIS, INDIANA, IOWA, MICHIGAN, WISCONSIN. SECTION 5 (MIDWEST) KANSAS, MINNESOTA, MISSOURI, NEBRASKA, NORTH DAKOTA, SOUTH DAKOTA. SECTION 6 (SOUTHWEST) ARKANSAS, COLORADO, NEW MEXICO, OKLAHOMA, TEXAS. SECTION 7 (WEST) ARIZONA, CALIFORNIA, HAWAII, NEVADA, UTAH. SECTION 8 (NORTHWEST) ALASKA, IDAHO, MONTANA, OREGON, WASHINGTON, WYOMING.

interscholastic athletic programs at the state level.

Services provided to NFSHSA members include production and dissemination of films on training and officiating; clinics for trainers; an annual Athletic Directors Conference; and a continuing effort with the American Medical Association to provide guidelines on sports-related injuries. In addition, the Federation coordinates athletic events between schools belonging to different state associations. In these cases, the Federation must seek a sanction from each state association involved before the competition can take place.

Much of the work of the Federation is done through its committees. One of the major services provided its membership is the writing of rules of competition which state associations adopt as their own. Each committee is composed of high school coaches, officials, administrators, and other individuals knowledgeable in the sport over which the committee has jurisdiction. At present there are eleven NFSHSA rules committees which meet periodically to approve rule changes:

Baseball,
Basketball,
Football,
Gymnastics (boys and girls),
Soccer,
Softball,
Swimming and Diving,
Track and Field,
Wrestling, and
Volleyball.

State associations are not obligated to adopt these rules. However, states which choose to do so can take advantage of other services offered by the Federation, including examinations for the certifying of officials, interpretations of rules, the opportunity to attend the annual national rules interpreters meeting, and the opportunity to answer questionnaires regarding the effectiveness of both new and old rules. State associations which adopt Federation rules also are eligible to appoint representatives to sit on the Rules Committees. Such appointments are highly regarded by Federation members.

One of the seven professional staff members at NFSHSA headquarters is assigned to each of the rules committees. Staff members are also responsible for such functions as coordinating the distribution and production of sports films, advertising and publications, arranging annual and midwinter meetings, disseminating information on sports medicine and providing legal advice to Federation officers. In addition to the professional staff, there are presently 16 clerical employees at the headquarters office.

The structures of state high school associations reflect, in varying degree, that of the National Federation. In some states all members are elected, in others they are appointed. An example of the latter case is the Maryland Public Secondary School Athletic Association, composed of public high schools in the state. The major policy- and decision-making authority in the Association is the Representative Assembly, composed of 23 delegates appointed by county superintendents, three county superintendents, and the 33 members of the State Board of Control. The Assembly meets annually.

The State Board of Control consists of the officers of the Association and delegates from each of eight districts (the number of delegates appointed per district varies, depending on student enrollment). The State Board acts as the management arm of the Association. Each district has its own board of control, consisting of no less than five members representing the counties within each district.

At least 50% of the members of the State Board of Control must be administrators of educational programs. All members of the district boards are required to be certified professional employees of the State Department of Recreation or the Baltimore City Department of Education. (See organization chart on the following page outlining the Maryland Association.)

RULES AND THEIR EFFECT ON COMPETITION

As mentioned earlier, the Federation does not regulate high school athletic activities. Its rule-making efforts primarily concern standards of competition rather than those pertaining to an athlete's eligibility to compete. Eligibility standards are determined exclusively by the various state high school associations. As the President of the National Federation has stated, "they [state high school associations] strongly feel that there are many reasons why the Federation should not sit in Elgin, Illinois and decide what they should do in Florida and California."[1]

Not surprisingly, eligibility standards vary considerably from state to state. As a result, what an athlete can or cannot do is often more a function of geographical happenstance than athletic ability or dedication.

The Commission has examined a representative sampling of state high school association

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[1] Mr. Floyd Lay, Public Hearings of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports, June 11, 1976, p. 160.

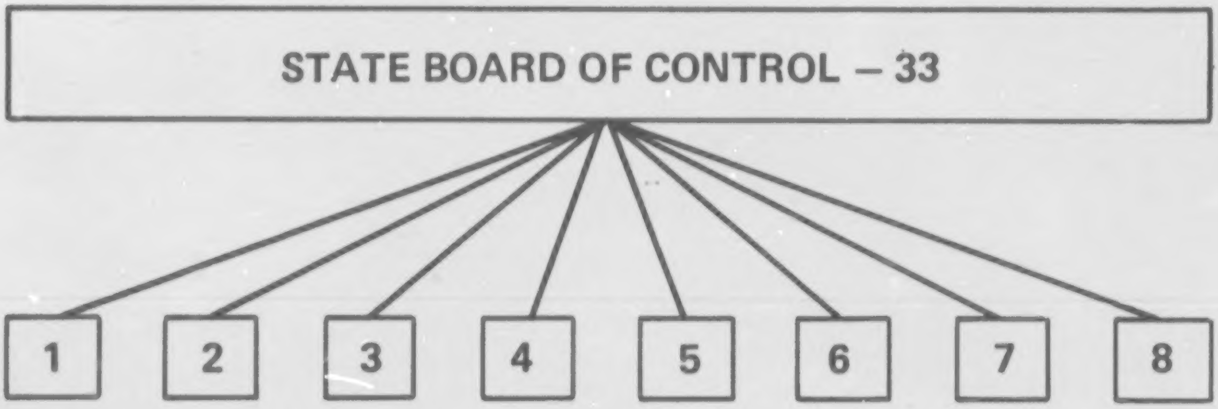
MARYLAND PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS ATHLETIC ASSOCIATION

ORGANIZATION CHART

REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY

ONE DELEGATE APPOINTED BY EACH COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT –	23
COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS –	3
MEMBERS OF THE STATE BOARD OF CONTROL –	33
TOTAL	59

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL – 33



DISTRICT BOARDS OF CONTROL

rules and has found a crazy quilt of confusion. (States sampled were Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nevada, Nebraska, Ohio and Texas.)

The intent behind most of the rules is commendable, i.e., to protect the athlete and maintain a proper balance between education and athletics. Frequently, however, the rules are applied in a manner causing unnecessary hardship to an aspiring athlete. Other rules, while not adversely affecting the competitive desires of large numbers of students, do appear rather quaint. A Kansas State High School Activities Association rule provides an example. In Kansas:

"Athletic events for any student who *has been* (emphasis added) or is a member of a large instrumental or vocal ensemble are not approved on Friday of the state music festival weekend if these ensembles are entered in the state festival. This applies on the weekend a school's state music festival is scheduled only. This will not apply on Easter weekend since music festivals will be held on Wednesday and Thursday. In these years, this regulation shall apply to any athletic events scheduled on Wednesday." [2]

Aside from its general tenor, the rule, by including the phrase "has been," appears to prohibit an athlete from competing on certain days even if his only association with a large ensemble was playing the tuba earlier in his high school career.

Similar examples abound, which, to the unaffected observer appear merely silly. Unfortunately, however, some high school association rules pose serious problems for the individual athlete, his school, and in too many cases, the country. Bart Conner, a high school gymnast from Illinois, provides a case in point. Conner, after intensive training spanning several years, qualified to compete for the U. S. in the 1975 Pan American Games, the greatest challenge in our hemisphere. Conner competed for the U. S. and, in fact, won a Gold Medal. Upon returning to Illinois he found himself disqualified for the remainder of the school semester because his absence from school for more than ten consecutive days violated his state high school association's rules.[3]

Two points of interest emerge from an examination of this case, one being that Conner was ruled ineligible not by the institution best able to evaluate the effect of his absence, i.e., his school, but rather by the State Association. Second, the rule forces a young athlete such as Conner to choose between representing his school in interscholastic competition and representing his country in international competition, even though the competitions themselves do not overlap.

A number of other high school association rules, designed with salutory goals in mind, tend to impede, often unnecessarily, athletic development and competition. Nearly all of the state associations examined impose enrollment and attendance requirements as a prerequisite for athletic competition. Generally, an athlete must enroll at a particular school within a certain number of days after the semester's start in order to compete for that school. The times vary but the eleventh day of the semester appears to be the most frequently used cut-off date (Ohio, Arkansas, Illinois, Missouri, Nebraska). Most states provide for meritorious exceptions to be made but, again, the types of permissible exceptions vary greatly from state to state. A sampling of allowable exceptions includes:

Texas – "Absence for not over two weeks on account of sickness or other *unavoidable cause*" (emphasis added).

Arkansas – Automatic exemption for induction into the military; possibility of waiver for "extreme extenuating circumstances such as temporary medical disabilities, false arrest and incarceration, etc."

Illinois – Possibility of waiver in the event of "illness or quarantine of himself or of his immediate family, or other circumstances deemed acceptable by the Board of Directors of the Association."

Kentucky – The enrollment deadline "may be waived by the Commissioner in any case where it would work evident injustice."

Very few of the state associations studied permit a waiver of the enrollment deadline in order to represent the United States in international competition. An exception is Colorado, whose Association rules state that "the Board of Control and/or the Executive Committee will approve all international competition held during the school year involving eligible high school students, member schools or representatives of member schools." [4]

Another of the few state associations mentioning international competition seems to approve such competition on the one hand, but rejects it on the other. The Missouri State High School Activities Association (MSHSAA) allows an athlete to "participate in international competition if approved by the Board of Control and [if it] does not violate the National Federation of State High School Association's Recommended Criteria for Evaluating Non-School Competition."[5] In the same paragraph, however, the Association states that "no school time shall be missed to practice for or to play in non-school competition or for any travel involved."[6]

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[2] The Kansas State High School Activities Association, 1975-76 Handbook, p. 22.

[3] Illinois High School Association Bylaw A-I section 8, 1974-75, Official Handbook, p. 15. The official language reads: "If his school connection shall have lapsed for a period of more than ten consecutive days (disabling sickness of self or immediate family excepted) he shall be ineligible for the remainder of the semester."

[4] 1975-76 Handbook of the Colorado High School Activities Association, p. 47.

A recent case illustrates not only the confusing nature of the above-described rules, but also the unfortunate consequences to the athlete resulting from such confusion. Tim Guelker, a senior at St. Louis University High School, was selected to try out for the U. S. National Youth Soccer Team, which participated in the recent CONCACAF (Confederación Norte-Centroamericano y del Caribe de Futbol) tournament. Twenty-one countries from North and Central America and the Caribbean entered teams in the tournament, held in Puerto Rico in the fall of 1976. The tournament represented a qualifying event for the World Youth Soccer Championship to be held in the summer of 1977.

Since the U. S. team in the CONCACAF tournament will, in all likelihood, represent our country both in the 1979 Pan American Games and in Olympic competitions in 1980, it received financial backing from the USOC's Development Fund, as well as the support of the national governing body for soccer, the U. S. Soccer Federation (USSF).[7] The principal at Guelker's school gave his approval for an absence of "one to six weeks." Guelker, before his departure for Puerto Rico, received "the utmost support of his teachers."[8]

The State High School Association, in initially refusing to approve Guelker's participation, cited as one reason for its denial[9] the failure of NFSHSA to sanction the CONCACAF tournament. Guelker's principal quickly pointed out, however, that the Federation "doesn't sanction events . . . [such as the CONCACAF tournament] only those that have all high school students involved."[10] Nonetheless, the MSHSAA Board of Control refused Guelker's appeal, thus rendering him ineligible for further interscholastic soccer competition.

A number of interesting points were raised by the MSHSAA in denying Guelker's appeal. Although implicitly agreeing with the Reverend Houlihan regarding the issue of National Federation sanction, the MSHSAA cited NFSHSA's Recommended Criteria for Evaluating Non-School Competition, stating that "items 2 and 3 were particularly noted."[11]

The criteria read as follows:

(2) Will it contribute to the mental, physical and emotional welfare of youth?

   a. Is the activity psychologically sound in regard to the physical, mental and emotional maturity level of the participants?

   b. Is the individual participating because of his own desire or because of outside pressure?

   c. Will it be conducted under standards appropriate for the age level of the youth concerned?

(3) Will it interfere with the academic program of the school?

   a. Will it cause a loss of academic work?

   b. Will the time for competition, practice, etc., interfere with the home study of the students?

The MSHSAA's denial essentially rested on two points, the first being that Guelker's participation would involve absence from school in violation of Article V, Section 4-e-(2). (See Footnote 6.) The second point was that although "the Board of Control acknowledged that state association standards take precedence over the standards of the National Federation by virtue of the fact that the latter is a federation of state high school associations, MSHSAA member schools officially adopted these criteria applying to international competition when they voted to give the Board of Control authority to approve international competition for high school students under Article V, Section 4-e-(9) (see Footnote 5), and that the Board has no authority but to adhere to them when applying this section."[12]

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[5] Article V, Section 4-e-(9), Forty-Eighth Annual Official Handbook, Missouri State High School Activities Association, July 1976, p. 15.

[6] Article V, Section 4-e-(2), Forty-Eighth Annual Official Handbook, Missouri State High School Activities Association, July 1976, p. 14.

[7] Letter dated September 1, 1976, from Mr. Gene Edwards, Chairman United States Olympic Soccer Committee to Mr. Robert Guelker.

[8] Letter dated August 31, 1976, from the Reverend Ralph D. Houlihan, S.J., Principal, St. Louis University High School to Mr. Irvin A. Keller, Executive Secretary, Missouri State High School Activities Association.

[9] Letter dated September 1, 1976, from Mr. Irvin A. Keller, Executive Secretary, Missouri State High School Activities Association, to the Reverend Ralph D. Houlihan, S.J., Principal, St. Louis University High School.

[10] Letter dated September 17, 1976, from the Reverend Ralph D. Houlihan, S.J., Principal, St. Louis University High School, to Mr. Irvin A. Keller, Executive Secretary, Missouri State High School Activities Association.

[11] Letter dated September 21, 1976, from Mr. Irvin A. Keller, Executive Secretary, Missouri State High School Activities Association, to the Reverend Ralph D. Houlihan, S.J., Principal, St. Louis University High School.

Several questions emerge from an examination of the MSHSAA's second point, including at least the following:

1. If, in fact, state association standards take precedence over the standards of the National Federation, then was not the MSHSAA free to reach its own independent decision on the CONCACAF tournament, regardless of the National Federation standards?
2. Even if the National Federation criteria are given great deference, do they, taken together, really argue against approval of an event that is part of the World Youth Cup? In this regard, it should be noted that the National Federation itself prefaces the criteria by stating that "non-school competition shall be evaluated by applying these criteria in total context. An individual criterion or a single factor within a criterion may or may not determine whether the competition shall be endorsed."[13]
3. How is it that MSHSAA member schools "officially adopted these criteria" when they voted to give the Board of Control authority to approve international competition?
4. How is it that the Board of Control "has no authority but to adhere to [the criteria]" when applying Article V, Section 4-e-(9)?

In any event, Tim Guelker, after obtaining his parents' and principal's approval, was faced with a choice: pass up an opportunity to represent his country in international competition in order to remain eligible for his high school team, or play on the United States team and accept the consequences from the MSHSAA. Having chosen the latter (he was named a member of the team), Guelker is presently waging a court battle, from the sidelines of the soccer field, to overturn the Board of Control's decision.

The notion that high school associations should act *in loco parentis* (that is, as a substitute for parents on decisions affecting their children) appears to be widely held in many states. Many state associations purport to regulate non-school competition even during the summer and other times when school is not in session. Still other rules regulate in-season non-school competition, and in some states this holds true even if the athlete is competing "unattached," that is, as an individual, and not as a representative of any non-school organization. The rationale behind this attitude seems tenuous for at least two reasons. First, while it is perhaps true that a high school student may not be fully capable of deciding where and when he should be participating in sports (as opposed to doing something else considered by some to be more constructive, such as studying) it deserves mention that most public high school students live at home, with parents presumably capable of making decisions in the best interests of their children. Second, a particular school's principal, after consultation with coaches and teachers, would, in all likelihood, be able to make a more informed decision than a group of State Association officials.

The *in loco parentis* doctrine has recently come under congressional attack. We cite for example, the enactment of the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act of 1974, 20 U.S. Code 1232g. The Act requires the withholding of federal funds from educational institutions which prevent parents of students from inspecting the educational records of their children, or which release such records to the public without parental consent. Further, the rights accruing to the parents under the Act flow instead to the student, if he or she is over 18.

Former Senator James Buckley, the sponsor of the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act, has argued against the dangers of the *in loco parentis* doctrine:

> "The denial of parental rights that seem[s] to be a frequent feature of American education is disturbing. Some school administrators and educators seem to have forgotten that parents have the primary legal and moral responsibility for the upbringing of their children and only entrust them to the schools for basic educational purposes . . .
>
> "There has been an increasing chorus of complaints from parents in the last few years about just such attitudes and actions on the part of some educators . . .
>
> "Such elitist and paternalistic attitudes reflect the widening efforts of some, both in and out of Government, to diminish the rights and responsibilities of parents for the upbringing of their children, and to transfer such rights and functions to the State—to separate, figuratively, and in some cases, literally, the child from his parents, and to

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[12] Letter dated September 21, 1976, from Mr. Irvin A. Keller, Executive Secretary, Missouri State High School Activities Association, to the Reverend Ralph D. Houlihan, S.J., Principal, St. Louis University High School.

[13] National Federation of State High School Associations 1974-1975 Official Handbook, p. 43.

turn him over to the care of the State, as represented by schools and other arms of its administration."[14]

As described earlier, no consistent pattern emerges from an examination of the various high school associations. The lack of consistency is striking in regard to out-of-season non-school competition. The phrase "out-of-season" is defined as either: (1) the summer break between school years or (2) school periods not involving the competitive or pre-competitive season of the sport in question.

Many of the states examined, including Illinois, Kentucky, Maryland, Nebraska and Texas, impose no restrictions whatsoever on out-of-season competition. No state association studied purports to prohibit all types of non-school competition throughout the year. Missouri, for example, restricts non-school football and basketball whether played in-season, out-of-season during the school year, or in the summer. Non-school track and wrestling are prohibited during the school year (both in-season and out-of-season) but are allowed in the summer. Non-school competition in sports other than those mentioned above, is permitted except in-season, provided that (see the Guelker case mentioned earlier) "no school time is missed because of the non-school competition or any travel involved."[15]

The rule in Maine[16] regarding non-school competition appears rather open-ended. According to the Eligibility Rules for Interscholastic Athletics, "A pupil shall be ineligible to participate in any interscholastic secondary-school athletic contest: . . . who has played on an outside team to which objection is made by local school authorities. Such pupil is ineligible for nine weeks after the date of discovery of his ineligibility."[17] Left unanswered are such questions as: what constitutes an "objection"; does it matter if the objection is unreasonable; who, if anyone, decides whether the objection is unreasonable or not; what are the criteria for evaluating an objection and who are "local school authorities?"

Minnesota provides another strange rule-making twist in the area of non-school, out-of-season competition. The rule for boys' team sports, defined as football, basketball, hockey, soccer, wrestling and baseball, states that, "after a student has participated in an interscholastic game or meet with . . . his school team in any sport, he shall not participate on an independent team in an organized game, meet or tournament in that same sport during the school year."[18] However, a separate section of the rules, pertaining to girls' outside competition in team sports, contains no such prohibition.

Inconsistency also exists among the states studied on the subject of competing "unattached" during a particular sport's interscholastic season. Approximately half the states studied, including Illinois, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Nevada and Texas, impose no restrictions on competing "unattached." Several states, however, including Colorado, Maryland and Ohio prohibit competing "unattached" during the sports season. The Maryland rule states that "a student who participates in the same sport outside of school, as an individual or with a team, an organized league, tournament, meet, match or game, on and between the first and last scheduled contest of the school squad shall be ineligible to compete in interscholastic athletics."[19]

As in the case of out-of-season non-school competition, Minnesota draws distinctions among different sports on the subject of "unattached" competition. In general, a student is prohibited from competing unattached throughout the school year (not just in-season) unless the competition "has been sanctioned by the Board of Directors"[20] of the League. The rule goes on to point out that "limited competition on an individual basis during the school year may be approved by a Review Committee appointed by the Board of Directors, providing the request has been approved and submitted by an official school representative."[21] Skiing, however, is exempted, without explanation, from the rule's prohibitions.

The several states examined present a more united front on the subject of non-school team participation during the school team's season. This appears understandable, as the school team has to depend on a relatively fixed group of athletes for purposes of continuity, performance and morale. Of the states studied, only Mississippi and Texas do not restrict in-season non-school team participation. The vast majority impose a flat-out ban on such competition, similar to the rule in Nevada which reads: "If, during the school year and while a member of a high school team or squad, the student participates on an organized team engaged in the same sport, he shall be ineligible for any further participation in that sport for the remainder of that season." [22]

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[14] *Congressional Record*—Senate, May 14, 1974, S 8066.

[15] Forty-Eighth Annual Official Handbook, Missouri State High School Activities Association, July 1976, p. 14.

[16] As of 1968, the date of the Maine Handbook made available to the Commission by NFSHSA.

[17] State Principals' Association Handbook, p. 36.

[18] The Fifty-First Annual Official Handbook of the Minnesota State High School League, 1973-74, p. 61. It should be noted that after the language quoted above the rule exempts baseball from its prohibitions.

[19] Handbook of the Maryland Public Secondary School Athletic Association, 1975-76 School Year, p. 23.

[20] The Fifty-First Annual Official Handbook of the Minnesota State High School League, 1973-74, p. 62.

[21] The Fifty-First Annual Official Handbook of the Minnesota State High School League, 1973-74, p. 62.

Summer sports camps and clinics provide a final area of disagreement among the various state high school associations. About half of the states studied, including Colorado, Illinois, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland and Massachusetts, don't appear to impose any restrictions on such camps. Outright prohibitions against such camps exist in a few states, but usually the restrictions apply to only one or two sports. Ohio, for example, prohibits summer football camps;[23] Texas imposes a ban on both summer football and summer basketball camps.[24]

The remaining states studied impose sanctioning requirements on summer sports camps and clinics. In some states, such as Minnesota[25] and Mississippi,[26] the sanction requirement extends to all clinics, regardless of the sport.

Still others impose sanctioning requirements only to particular types of sports camps. Ohio, for example, requires that basketball and wrestling camps be sanctioned;[27] while Arkansas imposes such requirements on football and basketball camps.[28]

There can be no doubt that NFSHSA and the various state associations, have performed yeoman service for millions of students interested in sports. The Commission is well aware of, and duly impressed by, their invaluable contribution to American amateur athletics. Nonetheless, the Commission has been greatly disturbed by such cases as Bart Conner and Tim Guelker, wherein athletically-gifted high school students have been denied the opportunity to represent the United States, an opportunity beneficial to both the athlete and the country.

At the very least, the Commission believes that in the limited area of international and other unrestricted competition, decisions to compete should initially be made by the student and his or her parents, in conjunction with the student's principal. The Commission recommends that the state high school associations study the need for, and reasonableness of, their rules and make changes as appropriate. In addition, the Commission recommends that Congress implement the proposed draft legislation to ensure an athlete's legal right to participate in international and other unrestricted competition.[29]

Although not specifically recommending legislation covering classes of competition other than unrestricted competition, the Commission does not want to be misinterpreted as having concluded that all is well in high school athletics below the international level. As the above examples have shown, abuses do occur. The Commission believes that, subject to restraints legitimately imposed by the particular school's officials, decisions concerning athletic competition should be made by the student and his parents. With the *in loco parentis* doctrine under legislative attack,[30] we believe it appropriate for Congress to study thoroughly the various state high school association rules and regulations to determine if legislation other than that recommended herein should be adopted.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

Presently, NFSHSA belongs to the following national sports organizations:

- –The U.S. Olympic Committee (USOC), where it is a Group B member;
- –The American Basketball Association of the U.S.A. (ABAUSA);
- –The U.S. Gymnastics Federation (USGF);
- –The U.S. Track and Field Federation (USTFF); and
- –The U.S. Wrestling Federation (USWF).

With the exception of the USOC, the Federation does not hold membership in any organization not dominated by the interests of the school/college community, such as the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU). This fact illustrates a basic difference between Federation and AAU philosophies: While the AAU is operated wholly for the benefit of sport, the Federation, or so it states, and the national groups to which it belongs operate under the principle that sport is a part of the overall educational framework.

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[22] Nevada Interscholastic Activities Association Handbook, p. 18.

[23] Ohio High School Athletic Association, Constitution and Rules, 1975-1976, p. 42.

[24] Constitution and Contest Rules of the University Interscholastic League for 1975-1976, p. 27.

[25] The Fifty-First Annual Official Handbook of the Minnesota State High School League, 1973-74, p. 86.

[26] Handbook of the Mississippi High School Activities Association, Inc., 1974-1975, p. 26.

[27] Ohio High School Athletic Association, Constitution and Rules, 1975-1976, pp. 45, 47.

[28] Official Handbook, Arkansas Activities Association, 1974, pp. 37, 45.

[29] See the Chapter on Athletes' Rights in Volume I of this report.

[30] See the discussion earlier in this Chapter.

Traditionally, the Federation is allied with the NCAA on many issues of concern to the school/college community. Evidence of this is found in its participation in the NCAA-organized national federation movement, in which organizations were formed in four sports for the purpose of wresting control of the international franchises from the AAU. The Federation also supported the NCAA-backed S.3500 (see the chapter on the NCAA) and is a member, with the NJCAA, of the Joint Legislative Committee for Athletes and Education, which addresses common concerns related to Federal government actions. Like the NCAA, the Federation has not affiliated with the AAU, although the high schools conduct programs in sports for which the AAU is the national governing body (NGB). Another similarity between the NCAA and the Federation is that the latter does not belong to any independent NGBs for sports in which there are high school-sponsored programs, such as archery, rowing, fencing, and field hockey. However, individual high schools hold membership in some of these organizations.

NFSHSA's role as spokesman for interscholastic athletic programs has sometimes resulted in strained relations with other organizations which draw their membership from the school/college community. One group, the American Alliance of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (AAHPER), was taken to task by the Federation during the debate on the implementing regulations for Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. The regulations pertain to sex discrimination in sports programs sponsored by educational institutions receiving federal government funds. During promulgation of the regulations, AAHPER cited support for them by the nation's high school athletic directors. NFSHSA quickly pointed out that AAHPER's support for the regulations did not indicate support from the entire interscholastic community, elements of which were seeking changes in the regulations prior to their implementation.

In fact, the National Council of Secondary School Athletic Directors (the National Council), representing some 4,000 high school athletic directors is allied with AAHPER and this group did support the intent of the proposed regulations. However, the Federation interpreted AAHPER's statement in support of the regulations as speaking for all elements of the high school community and moved vigorously to separate itself from the AAHPER statement.

The alliance of the high school athletic directors with AAHPER is also a matter of some concern to the Federation, which would prefer to see the National Council act as an independent body. In fact, the Federation has withheld services from the National Council, including distribution of their quarterly magazine, sponsorship of a national conference, and free transscripts of such conferences, until the athletic directors drop their affiliation with AAHPER.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

The following exhibits list the number of athletes competing in each of the 32 sports sponsored by state associations.[31]

Efforts to Attract New Participants

Much of the work of bringing new sports into interscholastic programs is done at the local high school level and not at the Federation level. When enough high schools are conducting a program in a new sport, the state association may sponsor a championship tournament, which furthers development of new school programs. On the other hand, a state association may drop its sponsorship of a state tournament if it feels the interest among schools is insufficient.

An exception to this rule of thumb has been development of girls' sports; numerous state associations have announced championship tournaments before the normal degree of interest and participation among high schools had been attained. As an example, the state of Illinois announced in recent years that it was expanding its championship tournaments in girls' sports from four to eight. The state association now sponsors twelve tournaments in girls' sports, primarily as a means of developing girls' interscholastic programs throughout its membership.

FACILITIES

The many facilities described at the beginning of this chapter are a unique embarrassment of riches for U. S. high schools. On the one hand, the high schools claim to conduct one of the largest sports programs in the world, citing as proof the quality and quantity of facilities. Yet, the high schools also claim that interscholastic, intramural, and other types of programs make maximum use of these facilities and that allowing other groups, such as clubs, to use them is often difficult. It is questionable whether facilities constructed largely with public funds can be closed to the public during hours when high school students are not using them. Indeed, facilities at some high schools are already open to the public during certain hours. It is likely that were there sufficient demand for other facilities by non-high school groups, local officials would discontinue their closed-door policy altogether.

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[31] Source: National Federation of State High School Associations, 1974-1975 Official Handbook.

The Commission is sympathetic to statements by the high schools that lack of proper funding and supervision might result in misuse of facilities or in injuries leading to court suits. However, collection of user fees specifically structured to cover salaries of necessary additional supervisory and custodial employees, and the purchase of necessary insurance would alleviate the problem.

EXHIBIT II

1974-75 Sports Participation Survey

Compiled by
The National Federation of State High School Associations
400 Leslie Street, P.O. Box 98, Elgin, Illinois 60120

Based on Competition at the Interscholastic Level

	Boys		*Girls*	
	Number of Schools	*Number of Participants*	*Number of Schools*	*Number of Participants*
Archery	8	128	253	548
Badminton	1,264	12,694	1,598	24,071
Baseball	14,680	409,510	16	423
Basketball	20,011	688,690	11,654	307,808
Bowling	780	9,588	789	8,982
Crew	36	116	–0–	–0–
Cross Country	10,135	214,840	1,009	12,301
Curling	940	6,151	336	6,184
Decathlon	161	397	–0–	–0–
Drill Squads	30	900	5,060	5,500
Fastball	–0–	–0–	29	733
Fencing	91	1,394	64	671
Field Hockey	37	1,003	1,897	59,106
Football – 11 man	14,281	1,011,809	–0–	20
8 man	621	14,568	1	12
6 man	180	3,771	–0–	–0–
12 man	627	41,573	–0–	25
flag	8	183	2	50
Golf	9,998	135,813	2,173	17,956
Gymnastics	1,697	36,834	2,835	81,424
Ice Hockey	870	27,431	26	95
Lacrosse	232	5,810	82	3,018
Pentathlon	50	75	–0–	–0–
Riflery	333	5,112	26	471
Rugby	425	7,313	–0–	–0–
Skiing	631	11,584	315	7,341
Soccer	3,356	98,482	409	10,717
Softball	205	3,457	5,081	110,140
Swimming	4,062	114,645	2,785	73,946
Table Tennis	189	1,211	97	571
Tennis	7,781	124,208	5,609	5,495
Track and Field (Indoor)	1,362	39,168	233	8,252
Track and Field (Outdoor)	17,102	667,974	10,387	299,215
Volleyball	2,583	43,050	8,610	198,313
Water Polo	385	10,644	–0–	–0–
Weightlifting	36	951	–0–	–0–
Wrestling	9,130	319,048	–0–	–0–

EXHIBIT II – continued

Boys Participation – 1974-75

	Baseball		*Basketball*		*Bowling*		*Cross Country*	
Country-State	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*
Alabama	310	6,500	417	9,500			40	500
Alaska			47	1,200			24	1,000
Arizona	129	7,251	135	9,140			14	2,475
Arkansas			390	15,500			15	3,100
California	864	36,564	890	40,459	13	155	616	21,111
Canada								
Alberta	11	199	183	3,187	3	33	75	757
British Columbia			625	7,729	73	556	195	1,588
Manitoba	13	70	17	1,878	17	155	12	418
New Brunswick		260		650				140
Nova Scotia			72	1,080			53	116
Ontario			520	18,093			452	6,111
Saskatchewan			197	2,350			14	1,140
Newfoundland			36	504			22	111
Colorado	189	5,820	247	9,950			101	2,250
Connecticut	179	5,879	179	5,256			135	2,111
Delaware	57	1,952	68	2,291			40	710
Dist. of Col.	15	320	15	300			15	450
Florida	341	9,169	411	13,187			180	2,467
Georgia	360	12,000	375	15,000			105	1,575
Hawaii	42		49		17		33	
Idaho	60	1,347	125	3,898			41	503
Illinois	659	25,960	764	30,825			473	13,925
Indiana	518	14,000	523	20,500			511	12,000
Iowa	482	9,640	504	15,120	104	520	216	5,400
Kansas	51	1,160	390	11,700			215	4,300
Kentucky	291	7,566	317	9,510			161	2,415
Louisiana	220	5,600	450	10,000			10	3,000
Maine	165	3,470	130	4,622	3	120	15	554
Maryland	127	3,461	130	4,000			109	1,635
Massachusetts		12,389		12,509		29		6,040
Michigan	629	24,400	699	23,190			540	1,160
Minnesota	153	14,257	514	22,838			287	4,102
Mississippi	225	3,625	292	4,380				
Missouri	363	9,622	760	27,772			251	5,017
Montana			207	8,500			85	900
Nebraska	38	1,140	367	20,000			138	2,800
Nevada	32	768	46	1,380			30	400
New Hampshire	82	2,100	82	2,500	6	70	35	900
New Jersey	412	18,540	417	18,765	182	3,640	372	11,130
New Mexico	66	1,800	127	4,000			50	1,500
New York	757	22,700	769	19,500	336	4,000	586	6,700
N. Carolina	280	7,250	327	9,810			84	1,260
N. Dakota	62	1,115	271	9,682			18	936
Ohio	392	23,674	1,524	37,504			703	13,040
Oklahoma	356	7,920	489	9,780			40	491
Oregon	200	9,000	240	1,640			180	3,600
Pennsylvania	545	11,900	1,035	31,050			373	7,460
Rhode Island	39	1,001	44	1,059			40	756
S. Carolina	232	6,500	232	1,400	18	225	80	1,600
S. Dakota			209	5,120	10	85	121	1,950
Tennessee	274	6,576	372	10,230			89	623
Texas	746	31,000	1,134	52,000			822	24,000
Utah	1,785		92	3,220			47	600
Vermont	60	1,936	62	2,145			40	622
Virginia	265	9,708	282	11,430			150	2,250
Washington	289	8,823	320	11,836			213	4,151
W. Virginia	125	3,516	318	9,488			41	506
Wisconsin	373	10,062	422	32,136			286	5,583
Wyoming			73	2,190			27	395

EXHIBIT II – continued

Football	*11-Man*		*8-Man*		*6-Man*		*12-Man*	
State-Country	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*
Alabama	350	22,500						
Alaska	8	320						
Arizona			17	596			115	9,620
Arkansas	195	13,500						
California	806	89,917	36 (plus 6M)	1,015				
Canada					14 (9-M)	421		
Alberta	1	40	8	130	21 (9-M)	622	46	3,011
British Columbia	93	2,450						
Manitoba	11	243					13	580
New Brunswick		400						
Nova Scotia							5	160
Ontario							413	27,044
Saskatchewan			35	700	59	1,060	35	1,166
Newfoundland								
Colorado	180	11,000	36	1,000				
Connecticut	126	7,734						
Delaware	48	3,440						
Dist. of Col.	15	850						
Florida	364	28,580						
Georgia	316	18,960						
Hawaii	41							
Idaho	109	5,825	14	343				
Illinois	568	35,800						
Indiana	424	28,500						
Iowa	435	21,750						
Kansas	337	14,380	45	900				
Kentucky	200	9,000						
Louisiana	280	12,500						
Maine	61	3,678						
Maryland	123	8,610						
Massachusetts		20,235						
Michigan	661	48,400						
Minnesota	444	32,338						
Mississippi	261	10,440						
Missouri	460	33,119			6	118		
Montana	85	6,500	67	1,500				
Nebraska	278	11,000	84	2,400				
Nevada	34	2,790	7	140				
New Hampshire	32	2,400						
New Jersey	371	37,100						
New Mexico	90	4,000						
New York	583	29,000	28	450				
N. Carolina	292	14,600						
N. Dakota	96	6,504	52 (9-M)	1,909				
Ohio	1,304	61,918						
Oklahoma	304	10,651	18	302				
Oregon	190	12,350	37	55				
Pennsylvania	911	72,880						
Rhode Island	39	1,893						
S. Carolina	210	11,500						
S. Dakota	84	2,680	68	1,360	22 (9-M)	550		
Tennessee	295	19,765						
Texas	908	121,000	38	1,000	58	1,000		
Utah	80	5,500						
Vermont	24	1,807						
Virginia	270	22,497						
Washington	268	17,208	32	769				
W. Virginia	151	6,687						
Wisconsin	405	43,270						
Wyoming	60	1,800						

EXHIBIT II – continued

	Golf		*Gymnastics*		*Ice Hockey*		*Skiing*	
Country-State	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*
Alabama	150	550						
Alaska					5	75		
Arizona	66	1,820	18	300			4	80
Arkansas	100	1,000						
California	605	8,195	128	3,493			22	533
Canada								
Alberta	33	193	19	111	6	100	2	36
British Columbia	134	923	58	640	44	677	64	1,002
Manitoba	49	308	39	257	25	308		
N. Brunswick						580		
Nova Scotia			21	525	46	920		
Ontario	346	1,987	279	3,985	241	4,134	181	2,043
Saskatchewan								
Newfoundland					17	343		
Colorado	97	1,100	50	1,600	13	250	11	300
Connecticut	136	1,476	15	248	32	117		
Delaware	28	341	1	35				
Dist. of Col.	10	150						
Florida	258	2,260	24	381				
Georgia	160	2,400	70	2,100				
Hawaii	35		5					
Idaho	48	651						
Illinois	435	12,625	88	3,250				
Indiana	401	5,000	50	1,000				
Iowa	335	5,040	11	270				
Kansas	112	2,820	32	640				
Kentucky	194	2,321	15	240				
Louisiana	100	950	28	450				
Maine	63	621	10	115	8	227	33	548
Maryland	70	750						
Massachusetts		3,212		1,455		7,089		765
Michigan	489	5,240	33	485	72	1,370	78	1,170
Minnesota	317	5,441	66	1,582	139	5,163	52	1,536
Mississippi								
Missouri	220	2,872	21	417				
Montana	47	900	20	250				
Nebraska	120	1,600	30	1,200				
Nevada	23	230						
New Hampshire	30	350	2	12	20	600	33	700
New Jersey	283	2,880	52	3,120	32	800	16	320
New Mexico	41	500	14	300				
New York	520	5,000	120	1,450	68	1,000	76	1,500
N. Carolina	178	1,780						
N. Dakota	65	839			11	369		
Ohio	704	7,558	92	1,533	26	451		
Oklahoma	101	313						
Oregon	130	960	44	880				
Pennsylvania	415	6,225	65	1,300				
Rhode Island	35	296			25	576		
S. Carolina	150	900						
S. Dakota	52	543	4	80				
Tennessee	190	2,090						
Texas	964	20,000						
Utah	60	720						
Vermont	31	281	17	191	18	493	23	320
Virginia	200	1,600	50	500				
Washington	187	2,788	46	1,123				
W. Virginia	91	742						
Wisconsin	287	5,679	40	1,316	18	538	18	281
Wyoming	37	296	12				18	250

EXHIBIT II – continued

	Soccer		*Swimming*		*Track and Field*			
					Indoor		*Outdoor*	
State-Country	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*
Alabama			30	300	80	2,000	280	2,800
Alaska							35	1,000
Arizona			29	720			132	8,306
Arkansas			75	750			340	10,000
California	339	12,846	517	17,530			124	13,010
Canada								
Newfoundland	33	541						
Alberta	40	825	22	390	6	186	137	2,894
British Columbia	310	4,821	98	890			389	6,478
Manitoba	65	1,242	7		42	526	105	2,904
New Brunswick		480						575
Nova Scotia	54	810					77	2,310
Ontario	355	7,545	165	3,536	9	190	559	21,508
Saskatchewan	35	535					213	6,800
Colorado	19	300	61	1,800			224	21,000
Connecticut	131	3,838	107	2,180	60	1,050	156	6,563
Delaware	38	854	18	385	22	500	13	2,063
Dist. of Col.	10	220	5	125	12	360	15	450
Florida	66	2,284	172	3,245			352	12,003
Georgia	130	3,900	110	3,300			340	10,300
Hawaii	14		33				45	
Idaho							109	3,027
Illinois	60	1,890	151	5,820			700	24,475
Indiana			146	4,000			528	20,500
Iowa			49	1,470			486	24,300
Kansas			24	480	233	11,650	390	19,500
Kentucky	16	400	48	1,152			230	1,900
Louisiana	20	420	50	250	20	300	290	9,500
Maine	72	2,203	24	640	22	745	89	2,653
Maryland	95	3,600			55	1,750	130	4,560
Massachusetts								
Michigan	27	640	205	6,840			668	25,200
Minnesota	43	2,668	119	3,708			470	17,601
Mississippi							253	5,060
Missouri	73	2,286	59	1,776	128	5,120	609	26,343
Montana			10	200			205	7,500
Nebraska			26	1,100			367	15,000
Nevada								
N. Hampshire	62	1,800	4	40	20	325	35	1,200
N. Jersey	295	17,700	84	3,360	191	9,550	368	22,080
N. Mexico			15	300			114	3,500
N. York	480	13,000	248	4,500	223	3,000	680	19,500
N. Carolina	30	600	13	325			237	7,110
N. Dakota			8	273	48	605	227	6,160
Ohio	72	1,320	175	4,491			1,376	42,806
Oklahoma			38	463			216	3,243
Oregon			75	1,500			230	11,500
Pennsylvania	250	5,000	156	3,432			717	21,510
Rhode Island	22	680	10	224	19	678	40	1,356
S. Carolina	30	600	5	100			215	7,500
S. Dakota			3	68	4	90	207	5,140
Tennessee							197	6,107
Texas			815	25,000			1,134	75,000
Utah			40	1,200			85	4,250
Vermont	50	1,884	1	17	6	93	32	1,124
Virginia	30	750	25	500	150	350	275	9,035
Washington			85	2,473			257	19,809
W. Virginia							155	5,760
Wisconsin			82	3,322			390	24,122
Wyoming			20	350	12	120	73	2,100

EXHIBIT II – continued

	Tennis		*Volleyball*		*Wrestling*		*Other Sports*		
State-Country	*No. Schools*	*No. Part.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Part.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Part.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Part.*	
Alabama	225	650			65	600	30	100	Decathlon
Alaska					32	1,056	4	120	Riflery
Arizona	79	1,260			103	3,090	13	130	Riflery
Arkansas	130	1,500							
California	617	14,724	42	763	602	26,222	9	121	Fencing
							30	507	Riflery
							253	9,173	W. Polo
							6	116	Crew
Canada									
Alberta	14	13	150	2,612	32	305	141	1,663	Badminton
							91	754	Curling
							9	294	Rugby
							2	35	Water Polo
							9	111	Flag
British Columbia	72	663	354	3,822	86	1,158	191	2,004	Badminton
							176	1,108	Curling
							230	4,725	Rugby
							34	313	Softball
							53	311	Table Tennis
Manitoba			105	1,694	23	310	11	951	Badminton
							61	682	Curling
							3	20	Field Hockey
							4		Lacrosse
							77	882	Softball
New Brunswick				663		110		800	Badminton
								174	Curling
Newfoundland			48	608	15	184	40	160	Badminton
							25	100	Table Tennis
Nova Scotia			83	630			59	590	Badminton
							45	225	Curling
							34	510	Field Hockey
							3	144	Rugby
Ontario	252	1,899	475	8,401	331	6,093	456	4,699	Badminton
							264	2,108	Curling
							41	774	Lacrosse
							3	15	Riflery
							71	2,150	Rugby
							95	865	Water Polo
Saskatchewan			226	2,710	37	1,110	201	825	Badminton
							271	1,100	Curling
							4	90	Lacrosse
Colorado	39	1,200	95	1,780	189	7,200	50	75	Pentathlon
Connecticut	112	1,755			74	2,508	26	38	Decathlon
Delaware	33	526			55	2,091			
Dist. of Col.	10	150							
Florida	244	2,387			169	4,059	35	130	Decathlon
							36	951	Weightlifting
Georgia	175	1,750	35	700	220	6,600	90	1,800	Riflery
							30	900	Drill Squads
Hawaii	39		39		30		7		Riflery
							4		Water Polo
Idaho	26	909			90	2,326			
Illinois	275	6,375			400	19,000	15	150	Fencing
Indiana	249	3,500			372	9,000			
Iowa	83	830			304	12,160			
Kansas	103	1,545			154	4,620			
Kentucky	119	1,130			64	1,920	10	120	Fencing
							17	170	Riflery
Louisiana	148	450			35	350			
Maine	31	433	21	331	29	631	1	28	Archery
							2	60	Lacrosse
							6	55	Riflery

EXHIBIT II – continued

	Tennis		*Volleyball*		*Wrestling*		*Other Sports*		
State Country	*No. Schools*	*No. Part.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Part.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Part.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Part.*	
Maryland	78	800	20	400	110	3,210	30	900	Lacrosse
Massachusetts		2,610		228		2,491		473	Field Hockey
								371	Lacrosse
								404	Riflery
								278	Softball
								72	Fencing
Michigan	344	5,850			449	15,715			
Minnesota	177	3,831			373	18,582			
Mississippi	62	744							
Missouri	167	2,774	8	161	223	8,745	41	851	Softball
							14	280	Water Polo
Montana	15	150			87	2,500			
Nebraska	36	700			195	5,850			
Nevada	16	288		25	25	750			
New Hampshire	20	200	6	100	6	200	25	40	Decathlon
							1	40	Lacrosse
New Jersey	299	5,980			338	13,520	36	720	Fencing
							23	575	Lacrosse
New Mexico	38	400			44	800	15	45	Decathlon
New York	489	4,800	243	4,800	562	18,000	7	100	Archery
							71	1,000	Badminton
							15	150	Fencing
							127	2,500	Lacrosse
							83	830	Riflery
							111	108	Table Tennis
N. Carolina	115	1,725			128	3,276			
N. Dakota	14	226			66	2,522			
Ohio	403	6,846			816	25,063	6	81	Fencing
							17	301	Water Polo
Oklahoma	59	484	96	1,440	92	1,657			
Oregon	88	704			165	8,250			
Pennsylvania	244	3,360	93	1,860	682	27,280	77	1,035	Riflery
Rhode Island	27	435			27	776			
S. Carolina	140	1,250			80	1,000			
S. Dakota	22	210			95	2,450	21	438	Softball
Tennessee	147	2,205			82	2,296	30	44	Decathlon
Texas	1,029	22,000	450	8,000					
Utah	82	990			78	4,680			
Vermont	18	235	3	52	18	458	2	26	Riflery
							1	20	Softball
Virginia	150	350			150	5,900			
Washington	202	4,324			234	8,780			
West Virginia	42	477			75	1,492	31	595	Softball
Wisconsin	140	4,401	39	1,270	370	19,304			
Wyoming	7	50			49				

EXHIBIT II—continued

Girls' Participation—1974

State-Country	*Basketball* No. Schools	*Basketball* No. Particip.	*Field Hockey* No. Schools	*Field Hockey* No. Particip.	*Golf* No. Schools	*Golf* No. Particip.	*Gymnastics* No. Schools	*Gymnastics* No. Particip.
Alabama					80	200	20	180
Alaska	24	240					12	120
Arizona	37	867			13	195	32	550
Arkansas	280	5,600			25	200	50	1,000
California	577	14,069	128	4,362	20	217	211	7,111
Canada								
Alberta	178	2,940	17	380	29	123	35	362
British Columbia	539	6,421	269	3,880			75	638
Manitoba	97	8,855	53	484	49	62	39	333
New Brunswick		650		220				
Newfoundland	40	517						
Nova Scotia	69	1,035					28	700
Ontario		9,912		1,427	176			1,447
Saskatchewan	199	2,390						
Colorado	96	1,720					122	1,300
Connecticut	120	2,576	70	2,284			33	560
Delaware	54	1,490	42	1,560	1	6	1	30
Dist. of Col.	12	240			6	48		
Florida	92	1,752			75	386	37	595
Georgia	370	14,800					68	2,040
Hawaii	12	1,739			2	393	6	77
Idaho	56	1,047						
Illinois	300	7,000	70	2,000	60	600	110	3,500
Indiana	343	5,150	9	250	61	300	160	3,200
Iowa								
Kansas	226	7,980			37	555	39	780
Kentucky					70	840	27	324
Louisiana	150	2,500			25	100	30	480
Maine	120	2,758	44	1,903	20	65	31	715
Maryland	90	1,970					35	570
Massachusetts		7,609		7,170		74		2,173
Michigan	627	18,610	33	895	75	700	95	1,425
Minnesota	422	9,796			76	674	200	5,401
Mississippi	243	4,374						
Missouri	290	7,188			59	563	39	982
Montana	166	5,000			40	650	22	300
Nebraska	95	3,800			35	350	27	700
Nevada					18	180		
New Hampshire	75	1,800	45	1,000			2	20
New Jersey	380	11,400	209	8,360	13	130	83	2,490
New Mexico	98	2,000			9	60	22	270
New York	613	12,000	382	7,500	43	350	206	2,000
N. Carolina	245	4,410			24	240		
N. Dakota	193	4,075			15	138	24	814
Ohio	330	14,026	101	1,548	72	696	263	3,021
Oklahoma	437	9,614						
Oregon					50	250	72	1,440
Pennsylvania	397	11,910	208	8,320	3	30	61	1,220
Rhode Island	38	752	16	420			23	492
South Carolina	202	4,800			8	8	15	300
South Dakota	160	3,610			31	340	35	610
Tennessee	270	6,480			190	2,090		
Texas	789	36,000			500	5,100		
Utah							20	400
Vermont	60	1,483	42	1,193	14	50	20	426
Virginia	255	3,060	42	840			108	1,620
Washington	254	5,483	11	200	57	471	111	2,525
West Virginia	90	1,836						
Wisconsin	281	9,319	21	420	50	492	105	5,077
Wyoming	49	735			37	5	12	

EXHIBIT II – continued

Country-State	Skiing No. Schools	Skiing No. Particip.	Softball No. Schools	Softball No. Particip.	Swimming No. Schools	Swimming No. Particip.	Tennis No. Schools	Tennis No. Particip.
Alabama					30	300	150	300
Alaska	8	100						
Arizona			17	690	30	600	85	2,340
Arkansas					75	750	85	800
California	14	230	506	13,419	322	9,381	538	10,380
Canada								
Alberta	2	24	33	786	21	390	15	70
British Columbia	55	695	95	1,263	74	664	72	518
Manitoba			77	1,041	7			
New Brunswick		510		110				
Newfoundland			25	375				
Nova Scotia	8	80						
Ontario		331		671		2,057		818
Colorado	7	11			37	1,100	76	760
Connecticut			117	2,253	26	873	73	1,191
Delaware			36	757	7	185	30	434
Dist. of Col.			12	216	5	30	9	30
Florida					171	3,048	222	2,201
Georgia					103	3,090	160	1,600
Hawaii			6	76	35	1,064	37	1,064
Idaho								
Illinois			250	5,000	100	2,000	200	5,000
Indiana			143	2,200	99	1,500	136	1,390
Iowa								
Kansas			23	450	18	360	92	1,330
Kentucky					42	1,008	102	1,020
Louisiana			120	2,400	45	150	90	210
Maine	20	176	88	2,201	20	514	33	503
Maryland			75	1,670			70	800
Massachusetts		466		5,952		1,261		2,473
Michigan	52	640	352	8,260	161	3,100	218	3,680
Minnesota	32	2,714	25	1,326	99	2,714	144	2,568
Mississippi							62	764
Missouri			177	3,522	24	552	80	1,440
Montana					12	150	12	123
Nebraska					23	1,000	30	460
Nevada							18	270
New Hampshire	30	350	55	1,300			20	200
New Jersey			273	8,190	44	880	204	3,080
New Mexico					14	280	26	315
New York	49	1,000	588	8,800	176	3,500	303	3,600
N. Carolina			120	2,400	11	220	64	960
N. Dakota					10	300	12	228
Ohio			397	7,841	68	1,340	213	2,771
Oklahoma			101	1,519			41	399
Oregon					74	1,110	37	808
Pennsylvania			114	2,280	85	1,870	90	1,530
Rhode Island							8	171
S. Carolina					8	40	80	630
S. Dakota			12	240	3	72	20	100
Tennessee							101	1,515
Texas			900	16,000	511	21,000	990	16,000
Utah					30	750	75	900
Vermont	20	274	57	1,324	1	22	20	317
Virginia			110	2,200			84	340
Washington			61	1,149	68	1,524	212	3,613
West Virginia			26	501			26	349
Wisconsin			90	1,358	83	2,737	86	2,640
Wyoming	18	250			18	350	7	15

EXHIBIT II – continued

State-Country	*Track & Field (Outdoor)*		*Volleyball*		*Other Sports*		
	No. Schools	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	
Alabama	125	1,000	225	7,500	20	150	Archery
					85	450	Badminton
					30	200	Bowling
Alaska	10	200			8	96	Cross Country
					4	32	
Arizona	32	1,350	108	2,376	22	310	Archery
					31	640	Badminton
Arkansas	50	750	100	1,400			
California	328	7,140	567	14,674	26	349	Archery
					248	5,329	Badminton
					46	1,203	Bowling
					22	201	Cross Country
					7	48	Fencing
					1	1	Riflery
					10	213	Soccer
Canada							
Alberta	135	2,427	166	2,790	159	1,777	Badminton
					3	41	Baseball
					3	28	Bowling
					66	562	Cross Country
					66	566	Curling
					1	12	Football – 8 man
					1	25	Football – 12 man
					2	20	Flag
					1	15	Soccer
					6	156	Track (Indoor)
					29	733	Fastball
British Columbia	388	5,729	537	5,721	171	1,645	Badminton
					66	500	Bowling
					137	987	Cross Country
					138	966	Curling
					35	495	Soccer
					23	71	Table Tennis
Manitoba	105	2,511	105	1,830	91	910	Badminton
					13	160	Baseball
					17	163	Bowling
					62	511	Cross Country
					91	588	Curling
					25	95	Ice Hockey
					42	456	Track (Indoor)
New Brunswick		500		650		98	Cross Country
						174	Curling
						750	Badminton
Newfoundland			41	526	40	160	Badminton
					22	186	Cross Country
					4	70	Soccer
					25	100	Table Tennis
Nova Scotia	80	2,400	72	720	57	590	Badminton
					50	600	Cross Country
					40	200	Curling
					24	360	Soccer
Ontario		6,522		8,492		251	Archery
						2,960	Badminton
						2,203	Cross Country
						844	Curling
Saskatchewan	283	5,100	263	3,150	206	800	Badminton
					60	1,060	Cross Country
					263	1,050	Curling
Colorado	224	4,480					
Connecticut	73	2,469	41	779	31	164	Badminton
					25	316	Cross Country

EXHIBIT II – continued

	Track & Field (Outdoor)		*Volleyball*		*Other Sports*		
State-Country	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	
Delaware	9	180	18	415			
Dist. of Col.	12	180	12	216	12	180	Cross Country
					12	180	Track (Indoor)
Florida	125	2,402					
Georgia	280	8,400	30	600	50	2,500	Drill Squads
Hawaii	35	4,357	43	1,329	3	254	Riflery
Idaho	91	2,129	43	947			
Illinois	500	20,000	500	10,000	80	1,000	Archery
					150	3,500	Badminton
					170	2,500	Bowling
					50	500	Cross Country
					10	100	Fencing
					20	100	Soccer
Indiana	392	9,800	413	8,300	41	400	Badminton
					64	310	Bowling
					7	160	Cross Country
Iowa							
Kansas	363	14,520	237	4,740	152	6,080	Track (Indoor)
Kentucky	198	4,752			10	120	Fencing
Louisiana	120	3,500	120	2,250			
Maine	63	1,731	25	393	1	25	Archery
					3	118	Bowling
					18	11	Cross Country
					1	1	Ice Hockey
					5	17	Riflery
					3	17	Track (Indoor)
Maryland	50	870	70	1,727			
Massachusetts		1,500		966		222	Baseball
						192	Cross Country
						20	Football
						248	Lacrosse
						50	Riflery
						1,150	Track (Indoor)
						117	Badminton
						30	Fencing
						317	Bowling
Michigan	409	15,100	315	4,410	12	155	Badminton
					12	260	Bowling
Minnesota	463	14,151	370	8,591	23	312	Badminton
Mississippi	215	3,225					
Missouri	306	7,190	239	6,414			
Montana	185	6,000			60	550	Cross Country
Nebraska	350	8,500	359	9,975			
Nevada	39	585					
New Hampshire	25	600	6	60	6	70	Bowling
					12	100	Cross Country
New Jersey	153	7,650	48	960	77	770	Bowling
					37	859	Cross Country
					12	120	Fencing
					20	500	Lacrosse
New Mexico	102	2,530	85	1,275			
New York	345	8,500	381	11,000	71	1,000	Archery
					128	2,500	Badminton
					188	2,000	Bowling
					53	500	Cross Country
					9	90	Fencing
					14	350	Lacrosse
					11	100	Riflery
					254	5,000	Soccer
					16	200	Track (Indoor)
					49	400	Table Tennis

EXHIBIT II—continued

	Track & Field (Outdoor)		*Volleyball*		*Other Sports*		
State-Country	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	*No. Schools*	*No. Particip.*	
N. Carolina	80	2,400	95	1,425			
N. Dakota	225	4,875					
Ohio	792	20,448	718	14,026	26	348	Archery
					17	185	Badminton
					38	904	Bowling
					16	163	Fencing
					22	334	Soccer
Oklahoma	170	2,550	167	2,598			
Oregon	220	3,300	140	2,100	150	1,500	Cross Country
Pennsylvania	67	2,010	86	1,910	45	1,920	Lacrosse
Rhode Island	10	576	24	429	11	143	Cross Country
S. Carolina	20	400	40	400	11	100	Bowling
S. Dakota	190	4,230	10	160	12	140	Bowling
Tennessee	107	3,317					
Texas	906	35,000	920	28,000			
Utah			40	800			
Vermont	28	610	3	41	27	293	Cross Country
					2	10	Riflery
					1	18	Soccer
					2	13	Track (Indoor)
Virginia	102	4,000	40	600			
Washington	203	6,843	239	5,400	7	65	Archery
					72	1,336	Badminton
					21	228	Bowling
					70	371	Cross Country
					7	141	Soccer
West Virginia							
Wisconsin	348	16,028	282	9,304	12	96	Badminton
					7	140	Soccer
Washington	67	1,800	57	855	27		Cross Country

FINANCING

Once a statewide interscholastic program in a particular sport has been developed, a major problem confronting high school athletic officials is that of being able to continue supporting it financially. In most cases, interscholastic programs depend primarily on gate receipts and the ability of local high schools to generate additional support through such things as cake sales, fund-raising dinners, etc.

In nearly all jurisdictions, local government or school boards provide some assistance to interscholastic athletics, either through payment of coaches' salaries, or through construction of facilities. However, such funding generally is a small part of the total budget and has often been the first item dropped in the event of budget curtailments.

State associations also rely on gate receipts from statewide championship tournaments. In most instances, the bulk of a state association's income is generated from gate receipts and broadcasting rights of championship basketball tournaments.

The Federation derives more than 90% of its income from the sale of its rule books. Additional funds come from dues it charges member state associations and from advertising.

Generally speaking, administrators at all levels of interscholastic athletics feel comfortable with their "go it alone" philosophy. They seek no funds other than those they are able to generate themselves, and it is unlikely that representatives of the nation's high schools would appeal to any national sports funding source for additional funds to support its programs.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The nation's high schools, acting through the Federation, have made it clear they will oppose all plans at the national level calling for any semblance of regulation of, or interference with, interscholastic programs. However, they have indicated support of actions taken at the national level, consistent with their own philosophy, concerning the role of athletics in the education process. They have also indicated they will cooperate in efforts to encourage involvement of high school athletes in international sports events such as the Olympics and Pan American Games, where participants represent their countries and not "private organizations, commercial interests, or individual promoters."

Based on their previous record and testimony to this Commission, it is unlikely that the high schools will ever be actively involved in any organization aimed solely at the promotion and development of amateur sports, unless that organization acknowledges that the rules and policies of interscholastic athletics are beyond its purview.

In terms of achievements made in interscholastic athletic programs, it is unlikely that any other group could attain the degree of accomplishment and financial independence which the Federation has developed over the course of this century. It is questionable, however, whether the high schools, through the Federation, need maintain the strident defense of their efforts, which at times has contributed to fragmentation of the amateur sports community.

Any national body in amateur sport ought to be dedicated to bringing together those elements which would constitute a successful program of development and competition. Administrators of high school athletics are an indispensable ingredient in such a program, because they recognize that athletics is an integral part of each American's education and development. But until it becomes a more unified and cohesive body in both its rules and policies, until it realizes that there is no immediate danger of an outside group usurping its function, and until it realizes its copious talents to promote unity in the amateur athletic community, the Federation will not be performing at the national level as well as it can or should.

NATIONAL JUNIOR COLLEGIATE ATHLETIC ASSOCIATION

OVERVIEW

While relatively new, the National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA) represents a fast growing segment of education in this country. NJCAA is unique in the field of intercollegiate athletics in that it is the only national organization providing both men's and women's championships under one aegis. The recent establishment of a Women's Division within the NJCAA structure complements already existing programs and provides women with national competition in a wide range of sports. NJCAA also attempts to develop and maintain eligibility rules which are applied equally to both men and women athletes. In 1976 there were 296 colleges in the Women's Division and 586 colleges in the Men's Division.

NJCAA, headquartered in Hutchinson, Kansas, is divided into 22 Regions for legislative purposes. Its Board of Directors is made up of two representatives (male and female) from each Region.

According to its constitution, NJCAA's main purpose is to promote and foster junior college athletics on intersectional and national levels so that results will be consistent with the total educational program of its members. However, part of NJCAA's athletic philosophy is the belief that to combine both international level athletics and education is not a sound practice. Rather, NJCAA feels it would be better for the "elite athlete" to drop out of college and return after his or her competitive days are past. This can be done readily within the framework of current NJCAA Eligibility Rules. No age limit is placed on any athletes; all are entitled to play two seasons in a sport in any six semesters or nine quarters.

Thus, while NJCAA strongly supports the Olympic effort and participates in various U. S. Olympic Committee (USOC) activities, elite competition is not one of its primary considerations. In fact, an NJCAA spokesman has stated in public hearing testimony that the NJCAA would not "look with favor on . . . the infringe(ment) of the rights of its membership in conducting its athletic programs . . . or in the use of junior college operated athletic facilities for the sole purpose of advancing our international level programs."[1]

ORGANIZATION

History

In 1937 a handful of junior college representatives met in Fresno, California, to form an association to promote and supervise a national program of junior college sports and activities consistent with the educational objectives of junior colleges. The constitution presented at the charter meeting in Fresno on May 14, 1938, was accepted and the National Junior College Athletic Association became a functioning organization.

The initial activity sponsored was track and field. In 1939 Sacramento played host to the NJCAA Track and Field Meet, first in a series of annual championships uninterrupted except for three years during World War II. While the first meet drew only California schools, the second, in Modesto in 1940, assumed a wider scope with participants from Phoenix, Arizona, and Trinidad, Colorado.

NJCAA was fast gaining national recognition. At the 1941 championship in Denver, teams representing colleges from East of the Mississippi joined Southern and West Coast members. In 1945 NJCAA sanctioned an invitational basketball tournament at Compton College, Compton, California. By 1947, the tournament had mushroomed into a national activity, with teams from as far away as the states of Washington and Louisiana. Other schools from the Great Lakes area, the Mid-West, and the East Coast clamored for invitations that could not be provided. In response to this demand, NJCAA established its national basketball program. Attempts were made to carry on an extensive program of national competition in other sports as well, but lack of entries and financial hardships caused the temporary curtailment of golf, tennis, boxing, gymnastics and swimming after a three-year trial.

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[1] George Killian, NJCAA Executive Director, Public Hearings of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports, June 11, 1976.

In 1949 NJCAA reorganized for purposes of representation by dividing the country into sixteen regions. The constitution was revised, and the organization was incorporated as a non-profit corporation. Policies were written for the conduct of regional and national events, the NJCAA Bulletin was made the official publication and the first NJCAA Handbook was published.

Provisions for sponsoring a National Football Championship were added in 1956 and 1957 and another important step was taken: An affiliation was formed with both the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFSHSA) and the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA). Initially, emphasis was placed on formulating common playing rules in football, six-man football, soccer and baseball, and on continuing the use of common codes in basketball, track and field and other major sports. This affiliation, still maintained, is commonly called the National Alliance.

By 1958, NJCAA's influence and importance was recognized by other national organizations and the association was asked to participate in various national projects. These included:

1) The People-to-People Sports Committee, a foundation to promote international good will through sports;
2) President Eisenhower's Physical Fitness Council;
3) A study on equipment and supplies for physical education, athletics and recreation, sponsored by the Athletic Institute and the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER); and
4) Publication of the first edition of the Blue Book of Junior College Athletics by McNitt, Inc.

Also, in 1958, baseball became a part of NJCAA's national program and a year later national invitational tournaments were planned in golf, tennis, wrestling, and cross-country as well. National meets in swimming and shooting were sanctioned in 1960, soccer was added in 1961. In 1962 NJCAA joined the Basketball Federation of the United States of America (BFUSA), the U.S. Gymnastic Federation (USGF) and the U.S. Track and Field Federation (USTFF). (See NCAA Report, Vol. II.)

In 1963, NJCAA became a member of the USOC. It now has one representative on the 81-member USOC Board of Directors. Representation on the NCAA Rules Committee in Track and Field, Wrestling, and Basketball also was obtained during this period, further strengthening a relationship between the two collegiate athletic associations. In 1965, NJCAA was given a voice on various USOC Games Committees and has been active in formulating plans for various sports in the overall Olympic program.

In 1968 NJCAA's legislative assembly reorganized the administrative structure from 16 to 19 regions. Membership had reached a total of 419 colleges. The same year NJCAA joined the U.S. Collegiate Sports Council (USCSC), the U.S. Baseball Federation (USBF) and the U.S. Wrestling Federation (USWF), and a National Invitational Gymnastics Meet was added to the program.

In 1969 the appointment of a full-time Executive Director was approved by the legislative assembly, and the new office was officially opened August 1, 1969, in Hutchinson, Kansas.

At the time of the 1970 legislative assembly, membership had increased to 476 colleges. National Invitational Championships in Ice Hockey and Judo first took place in 1971, and decathlon, fencing and indoor track championships were added in 1972.

In 1973 the legislative assembly reorganized the administrative structure from 19 to 21 regions. Membership had reached 533. The addition of three invitational championships — in volleyball, basketball and tennis for women — took place in 1974.

A major change in NJCAA structure occurred in 1975 when the Board of Directors approved a Women's Division. National Championships for women were approved in volleyball, basketball and tennis. National Invitational Championships for women were slated in field hockey, skiing, gymnastics, track and field, softball, swimming and diving. Membership climbed to a record 563.

The year 1976 saw NJCAA membership reach 296 for its Women's Division, and 586 for its Men's Division, and the administrative structure was reorganized once again by expanding to 22 regional divisions.

Structure

The 22 geographic regions into which NJCAA divides the country for legislative, administrative and competitive purposes are as follows:

Region I	Arizona, California, Colorado west of the Continental Divide, Nevada and Utah
Region II	Arkansas and Oklahoma
Region III	Upper New York State
Region IV	Illinois
Region V	New Mexico and West Texas
Region VI	Kansas
Region VII	Kentucky, Mississippi and Tennessee
Region VIII	Florida
Region IX	Colorado east of the Continental Divide, Eastern Montana, Nebraska and Wyoming
Region X	North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia and West Virginia
Region XI	Iowa
Region XII	Indiana, Lower Michigan Peninsula and Ohio
Region XIII	Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Upper Michigan Peninsula and Wisconsin
Region XIV	Eastern Texas and Louisiana
Region XV	Lower New York
Region XVI	Missouri
Region XVII	Georgia
Region XVIII	Alaska, Idaho, Oregon, Washington and Western Montana
Region XIX	Delaware, Eastern Pennsylvania and New Jersey
Region XX	District of Columbia, Maryland and Western Pennsylvania
Region XXI	Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island and Vermont
Region XXII	Alabama

Member colleges in each Region elect one Regional Director to the Board of Directors of the Men's Division and one to the Board of Directors of the Women's Division. Each Division has an Executive Committee composed of one Vice-President (chosen or elected for a two-year term by that Division's Board of Directors) and two Regional Directors at-large (chosen or elected for a one-year term by that Division's Board of Directors). The Vice-President chairs the annual legislative meeting conducted by each Division.

The Executive Committee of each Division exercises the powers of the Board of Directors between meetings, except amending the constitution and bylaws or making any changes in the Rules of Eligibility. It also performs such other duties as may be assigned to it in the bylaws or by the Board of Directors.

The NJCAA Governing Council is made up of the elective national officers and the Executive Committee of each Division. Elected NJCAA Officers are the President, Vice-President for Women, Vice-President for Men, Secretary-Treasurer for Women, and a Secretary-Treasurer for Men. Officers are elected at the annual legislative assembly and serve staggered two-year terms, except that the President is elected initially for a three-year term. Officers may not serve simultaneously as Regional Directors.

Athletes' representatives are not expressly provided for in the NJCAA governing structure. (The following chart depicts the NJCAA organization structure.)

The combined NJCAA Board of Directors meets annually in March or in special meetings called by the President, who designates the time and place and notifies all officers and directors at least twenty days in advance. Special meetings of the Board of Directors may be called by the President at any time in order to consider emergency situations which may arise.

Regional Directors present at annual meetings or special meetings constitute a quorum for the transaction of business. All meetings, other than executive session, both regional and national, are open to official representatives from any junior colleges.

Regional Directors, volunteers who carry out much of the NJCAA's work, are elected biannually by representatives of member colleges within that region. They must be members of the professional staff of a member college. Directors are required to have had experience in athletics, either as a coach or administrator. Prior to election a new candidate for the office must file with the current Regional Director a letter from his chief executive officer approving his candidacy.

NJCAA standing committees appointed by the Executive Committees of each Division are:

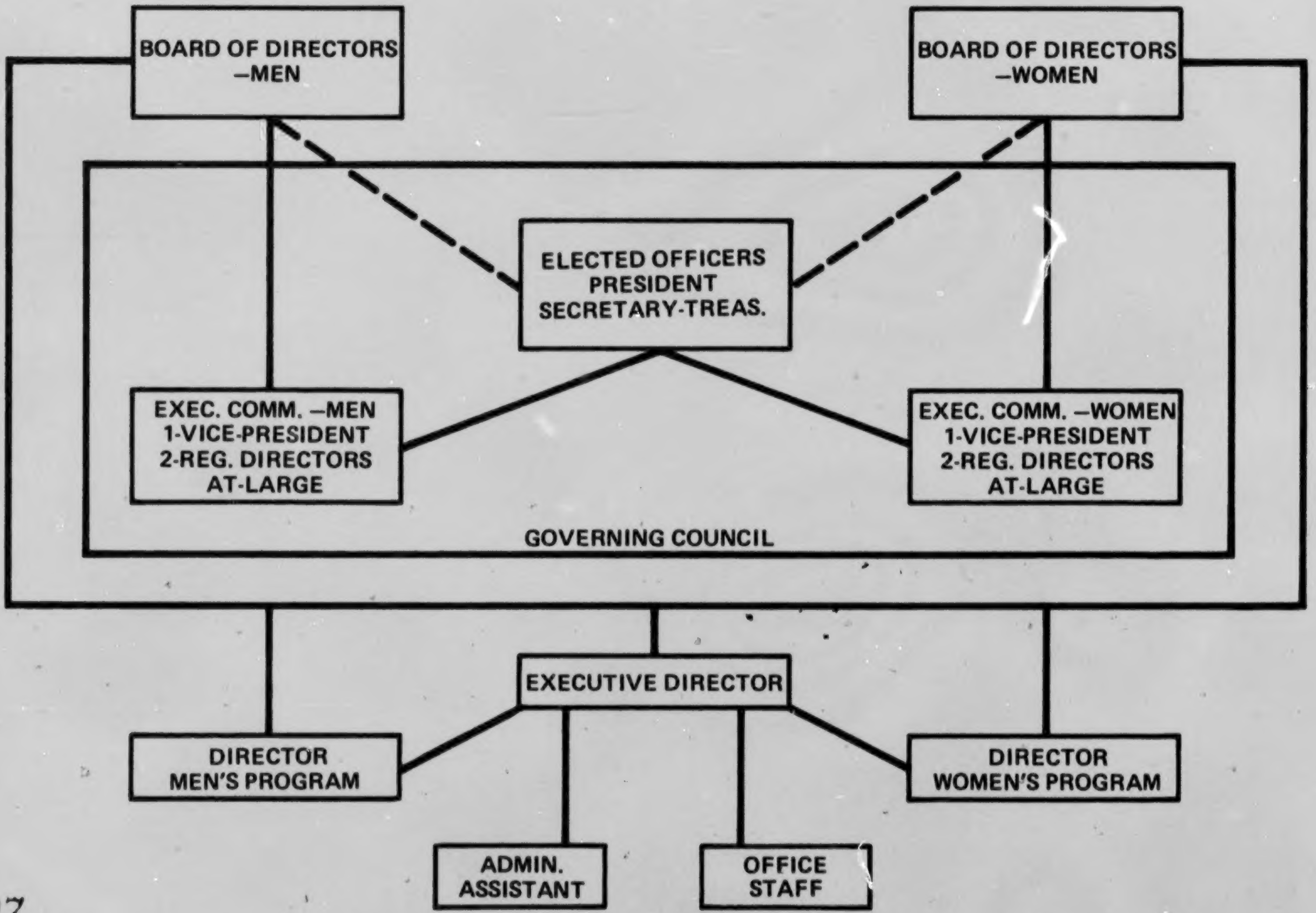
Women

1. All American Awards
2. Basketball
3. Bowling
4. Cross Country
5. Field Hockey
6. Golf
7. Gymnastics
8. Rules
9. Softball
10. Swim. & Diving
11. Tennis
12. Track & Field
13. Volleyball

Joint

1. Districting
2. Editing
3. Eligibility
4. Finance and Budget
5. Inter. Relations
6. Med. Asp. of Sports
7. Membership & Dues
8. Nom. & Elections
9. President's Special Study Committee
10. Program
11. Publications
12. Public Relations
13. Service & Recognition
14. Skiing

ORGANIZATION CHART NJCAA
MEN'S AND WOMEN'S DIVISIONS


BOARD OF DIRECTORS —MEN
BOARD OF DIRECTORS —WOMEN
ELECTED OFFICERS
PRESIDENT
SECRETARY-TREAS.
EXEC. COMM. —MEN
1-VICE-PRESIDENT
2-REG. DIRECTORS
AT-LARGE
EXEC. COMM. —WOMEN
1-VICE-PRESIDENT
2-REG. DIRECTORS
AT-LARGE
GOVERNING COUNCIL
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
DIRECTOR MEN'S PROGRAM
DIRECTOR WOMEN'S PROGRAM
ADMIN. ASSISTANT
OFFICE STAFF

Men

1. All-American Awards
2. Baseball
3. Basketball
4. Bowling
5. Cross Country
6. Football
7. Golf
8. Gymnastics
9. Ice Hockey
10. Judo
11. Lacrosse
12. Rules
13. Soccer
14. Swim. & Diving
15. Tennis
16. Track & Field (Indoor & Outdoor)
17. Volleyball
18. Wrestling

Membership

NJCAA members are junior colleges and comparable institutions that have received state or regional accreditation and have been approved by their respective NJCAA Region. Annual dues are paid according to the following scale:

Men		*Women*	
0-500 students	$100.00	0-500 students	$100.00
501-1000 students	$125.00	501-1000 students	$125.00
1001-1500 students	$150.00	1001-1500 students	$150.00
1501-2000 students	$175.00	1501-2000 students	$175.00
2001-over	$200.00	2001-over	$200.00

NJCAA services to member colleges include the following:

1. PUBLICATIONS:
   NJCAA Handbook, including Case Book on Eligibility
   JUCO REVIEW, official magazine of the NJCAA
   Minutes of the Annual National and Executive Committee Meetings
2. NATIONAL CHAMPIONSHIPS — MEN:
   - Baseball
   - Basketball
   - Cross Country
   - Football
   - Golf
   - Ice Hockey
   - Soccer
   - Swimming and Diving
   - Tennis
   - Indoor Track and Field
   - Outdoor Track and Field
   - Wrestling

   NATIONAL CHAMPIONSHIPS — WOMEN:
   - Basketball
   - Swimming and Diving
   - Tennis
   - Volleyball
3. NATIONAL INVITATIONAL CHAMPIONSHIPS — WOMEN:
   - Bowling
   - Cross Country
   - Field Hockey
   - Golf
   - Gymnastics
   - Skiing
   - Softball
   - Outdoor Track and Field

   NATIONAL INVITATIONAL CHAMPIONSHIPS — MEN:
   - Bowling
   - Fencing
   - Gymnastics
   - Judo
   - Lacrosse
   - Marathon
   - Rifle
   - Skiing
   - Volleyball
4. FILM LIBRARY
5. All-American awards are given in the Women's Division in basketball, gymnastics, swimming and diving, tennis, track and field, and volleyball.
6. All-American awards are given in Men's Division in baseball, basketball, bowling, cross country, football, golf, gymnastics, ice hockey, lacrosse, skiing, soccer, swimming and diving, tennis, indoor track and field, outdoor track and field and wrestling.
7. NJCAA Code of Conduct for players and coaches.
8. National rankings by the NJCAA Service Bureau for baseball, basketball, football, soccer and wrestling.
9. POST SEASON FOOTBALL BOWL GAMES:
   Wool Bowl, Roswell, New Mexico; Beef Empire Classic, Garden City, Kansas; Midwest Bowl, site to be determined.

Eligibility Rules of NJCAA

An examination of NJCAA eligibility rules and their effect on international competition illustrates the Association's middle of the road position between the NCAA's relatively extensive regulation and the NAIA's more laissez-faire attitude.

NJCAA does not impose any year-round prohibitions on organized, non-school basketball competition, as the NCAA does in its Constitution 3-9-(c); nor does it impose restriction in any other sport during non-school periods. As a junior college spokesman has testified, from the time "school ends in the Spring until school begins in the Fall, we don't care where the athlete goes. That is his own personal right to compete, wherever he may be."[2] Similarly, NJCAA has no certification requirement for track and field and gymnastics meets, as the NCAA does in its By-laws sections 2-4 and 2-5.

On the other hand, NJCAA, like the NCAA, imposes an in-season prohibition against non-school team participation in nearly all sports. The official language reads, "while a season of any sport, except bowling and golf, is in progress, as determined by the published schedule of the junior college, no students participating in such sports may play for any other team."[3] Unlike the NCAA, however, the junior college association does not automatically permit a student-athlete to compete "unattached" in non-school meets during his sport's season. Rather, the athlete must "first receive the official sanction of the NJCAA issued by the Office of Eligibility."[4]

Although not explicitly stated, it appears that the Eligibility Office's sanction is also a prerequisite to in-season participation in the Olympics, Pan American Games, or as a member of the U.S. National team in other forms of international competition. The pertinent language reads, "they (NJCAA athletes) may not compete in any athletic events, such as All-Star games or in open or invitational meets,"[5] unless they receive the

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[2] George Killian, NJCAA Executive Director, Public Hearings of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports, June 11, 1976, p. 101.

[3] Article V, Section 9, NJCAA By-Laws, *1976-1977 NJCAA Handbook and Casebook*, p. 32.

[4] Article V, Section 9, NJCAA By-Laws, *1976-1977 NJCAA Handbook and Casebook*, p. 32.

[5] Article V, Section 9, NJCAA By-Laws, *1976-1977 NJCAA Handbook and Casebook*, p. 32.

Eligibility Office's sanction mentioned above. It deserves noting in this regard that NJCAA gave an across-the-board sanction to the 1975 Pan American Games, held in Mexico City during the academic year.

NJCAA also has no rules comparable to the NCAA's "tryout" rule, (Bylaw 1-3 and Official Interpretation 112, thereto) or five-year eligibility rule (Constitution 3-9-(a)). The practical effect of the NCAA's tryout rule, as detailed in the NCAA report, is to restrict long standing contact between a high school athlete and a college/club coach. Regarding the lack of a five-year rule, the NJCAA's executive director has said, "the elite athlete (can) drop out of college and return after his competitive days are at an end . . . We place no age limit on any of our athletes, merely that their eligibility be terminated after playing two seasons in any given six semesters or nine quarters. It is not uncommon in our organization to find 50-year-old golfers or 40-year-old tennis players in our regional and national tournaments."[6]

Decisions on questions of eligibility are made in the first instance by the appropriate Regional Director, subject to review by the NJCAA's Office of Eligibility. A member college may appeal from a decision of the Office of Eligibility to the Executive Committee.

If an appeal is finally disapproved, the costs of conducting it are borne by the member college involved. No member college is penalized for action taken in reliance on a written decision of a Regional Director of the Office of Eligibility, even though the decision is subsequently reversed.

If the decision of the Executive Committee is challenged by the member college involved, such challenge must be resolved by submission of the issue to binding arbitration according to the rules and procedures of the American Arbitration Association.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

NJCAA, as an organization, maintains affiliation with the groups listed below:

The Athletic Institute
Amateur Basketball Association of the United States of America
Joint Commission on the Medical Aspects of Sports
United States Baseball Federation
United States Golf Association
United States Gymnastics Federation
United States Tennis Association
United States Track and Field Federation
United States Wrestling Federation
United States Olympic Committee
United States Collegiate Sports Council
United States Volleyball Association
National Basketball Committee of the United States and Canada
National Operating Committee for Standards in Athletic Equipment
Naismith Memorial Basketball Hall of Fame
NCAA Committee on Junior College Relations
NCAA Rules Committee

Baseball
Basketball
Football
Soccer
Swimming and Diving
Track & Field
Wrestling

Ad hoc affiliation NCAA Government Relations Committee

In addition, NJCAA is closely associated with Coaches Associations in many sports. Members of these associations include junior college coaches, assistant coaches, and in most cases, other members of the junior college athletic staff. The following Coaches Associations advise NJCAA Standing Committees in the relevant sports:

—Baseball,
—Men's Basketball,
—Women's Basketball
—Cross-Country
—Football,
—Golf,
—Gymnastics,
—Ice Hockey,
—Judo,
—Lacrosse,
—Skiing,
—Soccer,
—Swimming,
—Tennis,
—Track & Field, and
—Wrestling.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

In 1975-76, 48,591 men took part in NJCAA intercollegiate competition in 35 sports, while 281,118 participated in physical education programs in 36 sports. Women numbered 18,622 in intercollegiate competition in 26 sports and 206,578 in physical education programs in 36 sports. The figures represent participation at 520 member schools. The following table breaks these totals down by sport:

EXHIBIT I

1975-76 NJCAA SPORTS PARTICIPATION SURVEY

		Number of Participants	
Sport	*Levels*	*Women*	*Men*
Archery	NJCAA Intercollegiate	26	12
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	17124	18170
	NJCAA Intramurals	1068	1910

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[6] George Killian, NJCAA Executive Director, Public Hearings of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports, June 11, 1976, pp. 91-92.

1975-76 NJCAA SPORTS PARTICIPATION SURVEY

		Number of Participants	
Sport	*Levels*	*Women*	*Men*
Badminton	NJCAA Intercollegiate	356	276
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	20870	22322
	NJCAA Intramurals	3494	4412
Baseball	NJCAA Intercollegiate	0	8772
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	270	2394
	NJCAA Intramurals	30	894
Basketball	NJCAA Intercollegiate	4590	7464
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	10940	20772
	NJCAA Intramurals	10676	38724
Bowling	NJCAA Intercollegiate	526	654
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	19384	22638
	NJCAA Intramurals	4948	7198
Billiards	NJCAA Intercollegiate	24	24
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	1214	2108
	NJCAA Intramurals	1192	3524
Boxing	NJCAA Intercollegiate	0	80
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	2	282
	NJCAA Intramurals	0	50
Canoeing	NJCAA Intercollegiate	0	20
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	3518	3908
	NJCAA Intramurals	832	1272
Crew	NJCAA Intercollegiate	4	40
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	0	0
	NJCAA Intramurals	0	0
Cross-Country	NJCAA Intercollegiate	196	2046
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	364	1050
	NJCAA Intramurals	430	1928
Curling	NJCAA Intercollegiate	0	20
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	240	240
	NJCAA Intramurals	100	100
Fencing	NJCAA Intercollegiate	84	124
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	2402	2666
	NJCAA Intramurals	180	202
Field Hockey	NJCAA Intercollegiate	708	52
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	2128	60
	NJCAA Intramurals	40	150
Football	NJCAA Intercollegiate	0	5604
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	758	8050
	NJCAA Intramurals	2086	17502
Golf	NJCAA Intercollegiate	348	3314
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	16880	19806
	NJCAA Intramurals	1200	3044
Gymnastics	NJCAA Intercollegiate	386	370
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	7132	6224
	NJCAA Intramurals	378	410
Handball	NJCAA Intercollegiate	0	192
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	4288	8970
	NJCAA Intramurals	654	2618

1975-76 NJCAA SPORTS PARTICIPATION SURVEY

Sport	*Levels*	*Number of Participants*	
		Women	*Men*
Horseshoe Pitching	NJCAA Intercollegiate	0	0
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	436	500
	NJCAA Intramurals	468	914
Ice Hockey	NJCAA Intercollegiate	0	685
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	0	376
	NJCAA Intramurals	130	596
Judo	NJCAA Intercollegiate	52	172
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	2206	4498
	NJCAA Intramurals	388	896
Lacrosse	NJCAA Intercollegiate	90	632
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	144	532
	NJCAA Intramurals	0	170
Sailing	NJCAA Intercollegiate	0	0
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	846	1402
	NJCAA Intramurals	672	1082
Shooting (Rifle)	NJCAA Intercollegiate	20	93
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	278	602
	NJCAA Intramurals	0	0
Shuffleboard	NJCAA Intercollegiate	30	30
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	874	698
	NJCAA Intramurals	124	98
Skiing	NJCAA Intercollegiate	194	328
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	5066	6912
	NJCAA Intramurals	1072	1518
Soccer	NJCAA Intercollegiate	2	3396
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	2190	6088
	NJCAA Intramurals	532	2886
Softball	NJCAA Intercollegiate	2980	424
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	8826	13082
	NJCAA Intramurals	8880	19436
Squash	NJCAA Intercollegiate	80	120
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	124	276
	NJCAA Intramurals	0	0
Swimming	NJCAA Intercollegiate	528	1044
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	13290	15688
	NJCAA Intramurals	2042	3222
Tennis	NJCAA Intercollegiate	2580	3790
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	36986	40240
	NJCAA Intramurals	4708	7348
Table Tennis	NJCAA Intercollegiate	104	340
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	2116	2880
	NJCAA Intramurals	3020	6576
Track & Field	NJCAA Intercollegiate	1130	4188
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	878	2016
	NJCAA Intramurals	430	2206
Trap Shooting	NJCAA Intercollegiate	0	0
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	188	254
	NJCAA Intramurals	46	140

1975-76 NJCAA SPORTS PARTICIPATION SURVEY

Sport	*Levels*	*Number of Participants* *Women*	*Men*
Volleyball	NJCAA Intercollegiate	3494	300
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	21810	26494
	NJCAA Intramurals	11258	15850
Water Polo	NJCAA Intercollegiate	4	60
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	114	244
	NJCAA Intramurals	146	536
Weightlifting	NJCAA Intercollegiate	0	360
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	2368	15298
	NJCAA Intramurals	332	1150
Wrestling	NJCAA Intercollegiate	86	3562
	NJCAA Physical Education Program	324	3378
	NJCAA Intramurals	16	1884

Scholarships and Grants-in-Aid

An athletic grant-in-aid may be awarded to any student athlete in recognition of his athletic ability provided he has been admitted to the institution as a regular student. It is limited to tuition and fees, room and board, and books and course-related material.

Grants-in-aid are administered by the institution through the office, department or division which administers financial funds for all enrolled students. Renewal of the grant-in-aid must be given in writing as soon as eligibility is determined.

Member colleges are not permitted to solicit a prospective athlete with the promise of gifts or any aid or inducement other than that of a grant-in-aid permitted by the above rules. An institution may pay for one visit to its campus by direct route of a prospective athlete for a stay not to exceed two days and two nights; any such visit shall take place prior to the athlete's enrollment.

The following practices are prohibited with regard to grants-in-aid:

1) Permitting an athlete to receive assistance, in cash or in kind, which is not administered by the institution, or which does not fall within the permissible limits of a grant-in-aid as stated above. However, assistance from anyone on whom the athlete is naturally or legally dependent is not prohibited, nor is financial assistance given for reasons not related to athletic ability forbidden;
2) Cancellation or modification of a grant-in-aid during the period of its effectiveness because of injury or good or bad athletic performance. However, cancellation of a grant-in-aid is allowed:
   a) If the athlete becomes ineligible for participation in athletics because of academic and/or disciplinary reasons; or
   b) For misconduct (unrelated to athletic ability) found by the person or body in charge of general discipline at the institution, after following the same procedures as in other disciplinary matters, to be serious enough to warrant his permanent suspension or dismissal from the athletic program;
3) Permitting an athlete to engage in employment for which he is not required to work as hard as others in similar employment, or which is otherwise not legitimate employment; and
4) Annual awards for a cumulative reasonable value in excess of $100.

Facilities

All but a handful of NJCAA member institutions own and maintain sports facilities which include gymnasiums, tracks, stadiums, fields, tennis courts, etc. In general, Association policy allows outside groups access to junior or community college facilities although collegiate activities have the first priority.

Requirements for use of college-owned facilities vary according to the individual institution, but most willingly cooperate in supplementing community sports programs whenever possible. For example, the local AAU, Boys Club, Camp Fire Girls, or a private recreation club, may use a junior college's physical plant for its own activities.

Finances

For the fiscal year ending July 31, 1976, NJCAA had total assets amounting to just under $175,000. For the same year, total income amounted to $223,071.

During the year income from all sources exceeded expenses by $16,678. Sources of income included college membership dues, revenue from the *Juco Review* magazine, income from tournaments, donations, and from other miscellaneous sources including such items as resale of patches, rule books, and handbooks, and interest on investments. Total disbursements for the year were $207,029. Disbursements were made to associated agencies, to fund team travel, to cover administrative and executive office expenses, and in support of the coaches' association, women's division, tournament and bowl expenses, and other miscellaneous expenses having to do with such items as support of ticket sales and contributions to the Olympic Wrestling Fund.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The National Junior College Athletic Association is an organization of properly accredited junior and community colleges affiliated by geographic region to provide student athletes with opportunities for competition in a wide range of sports. The stated objective of NJCAA is to promote junior college athletics on intersectional and national levels in a manner consistent with the complete educational program of its individual members. NJCAA member institutions provide physical education programs, intramural activities and intercollegiate competition for students of both sexes, while the national organization annually conducts 16 Championship Tournaments in 13 sports and 17 Invitational Tournaments in 14 sports. In the Olympic/Pan American sports, the NJCAA conducts national level competitions in 13 sports for men, and in 8 for women (including field hockey, which is on the Olympic schedule for 1980). The NJCAA has been a member of the USOC since 1963 and participates regularly on several of its committees.

In addition, the NJCAA has been closely aligned with the NCAA on many issues of concern to the school/college community. Evidence of this is found in its participation in the NCAA-organized Federation movement, mentioned earlier in this chapter. The NJCAA also supported the NCAA-backed S.3500 (see Chapter on NCAA) and is a member, with the High School Federation, of an ad hoc NCAA Government Relations Committee to address common concerns of federal government legislation. Like the NCAA, the NJCAA has not affiliated with the AAU although the junior colleges conduct programs in four sports for which the AAU is the national governing body. Nor does the NJCAA belong to six other independent NGBs for sports in which there are junior college-sponsored national programs. However, the NJCAA is affiliated with five independent NGBs in sports which are currently on the Olympic or Pan American program.

In 1976, there were 296 colleges in the Women's Division and 586 in the Men's eligible to participate in the various activities. NJCAA is structured to provide equal representation for both men's and women's athletic programs through its system of elected regional directors. This complementary national structure is unique in the college sports community; all other collegiate organizations offer programs either for men only or for women only.

NJCAA exists in part to support athletics; it does not believe that its primary goal is the development of international caliber athletes. Rather, a student's total educational experience is given highest consideration. NJCAA assistance to elite athletes is best characterized as indirect. Many of its policies and activities assist in the establishment and maintenance of a positive environment for sports. The Association supports its member schools' general practice of making their facilities available to outside groups or individuals when the institution's schedule permits. Further, NJCAA schools train personnel in various sports-related areas, provide teaching or administrative positions in collegiate sports, and offer numerous activities to the junior/community college student-athlete, regardless of skill level. Thus, NJCAA and its member institutions play an important developmental and promotional role in U.S. amateur sports, the primary focus of which is to provide opportunities for participation to all students rather than to elite level athletes.

THE UNITED STATES OLYMPIC COMMITTEE

This chapter describes the United States Olympic Committee (USOC). It includes the role of the USOC internationally, a brief history of the United States Olympic movement with emphasis on the last six years, the national role of the USOC, an organizational description of the USOC, a description of the operational structure of the USOC and finally, a description of management and administration of the USOC.

ROLE OF THE USOC INTERNATIONALLY

A nation or territory wishing to take part in the Olympic Games must establish relations with the International Olympic Committee (IOC). This is accomplished when the IOC recognizes the country's National Olympic Committee (NOC), which occurs after the country has affiliated with a minimum of five International Federations governing Olympic Sports. The NOC for the United States is the United States Olympic Committee (USOC).

The relationships of the USOC with the IOC and the International Sports Federations (ISFs) are defined by the IOC for all matters pertaining to the Olympic Games. Should the USOC not meet the requirements imposed upon it by the IOC, the USOC and the United States may forfeit their right to send athletes to the Olympic Games.

NOCs are not members of the IOC but are recognized by the IOC as the only bodies within their countries which may enter competitors in the Olympic Games. NOCs have no votes on IOC matters. The IOC is a self-perpetuating body which elects its members much like a fraternal organization. The current 77 members of the IOC are not delegates from the NOCs to the IOC; rather each delegate is chosen by the IOC to be its representative in the member's country.

The IOC is responsible for the conduct of the Olympic Games and for promoting the Olympic Movement. In carrying out these responsibilities the IOC role is that of a guide, guardian and arbiter. The NOC is responsible for promoting the Olympic Movement within its territory and ensuring that the rules and regulations of the IOC are followed.

To be recognized by the IOC, the NOCs must meet the requirements that are stated in Rules 24 and 25 of the IOC Constitution. The major requirements are:

- Members of the IOC from the territory encompassed by the NOC must be included in the membership of the NOC.
- Membership of the NOC must include at least one representative of the National Federation recognized by the International Federation for each sport in the Olympic program if such a National Federation exists within the territory encompassed by the NOC. The NOC must have a minimum of five such National Federations represented in its membership. These representatives must constitute a voting majority of the NOC.
- NOCs "must be completely independent and autonomous and entirely removed from all political, religious or commercial influence."
- No professional athlete, coach or person

connected with sport for personal profit may serve on an NOC, except those occupying purely administrative positions. Exceptions may be made by the Executive Committee of the IOC in special circumstances on the recommendation of the NOC.

The ISFs, with whom National Sports Federations must be affiliated to engage in international competition, are responsible for the administration and promotion of their respective sports. The International Federations were established to develop uniform rules and regulations for their respective sports on an international level. In 1921, the IOC assigned the following technical responsibilities at the Olympic Games to the ISFs representing sports on the Olympic program:

- Establishment of rules and regulations for their sport,
- Supervision of the competition in their sport,
- Appointment of all officials (referees, judges, timekeepers, etc.) for their sport,
- Formation of juries to decide all technical questions pertaining to their sport, and
- Selection and training of referees, judges and timekeepers.

As the NOC for the United States, the USOC has the right to enter a team in the Olympics. The USOC assumes all responsibility for selecting and fielding the U. S. Olympic team. The team must be selected and fielded according to the rules and regulations imposed by the IOC and the International Sports Federations. (For example, the IOC outlines the general criteria for determining the amateur status of participating athletes, but ISFs may impose more specific amateur requirements on participants in their respective sports.) According to the IOC constitution, the major purpose of the NOC shall be "the development and protection of the Olympic Movement and of amateur sport" within the territory encompassed by the NOC.

Organization Chart I displays the relationship, roles and responsibilities of the IOC, ISFs and NOCs.

HISTORY OF THE U. S. OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

Knowledge of its history is essential to a clear understanding of the structure and behavior of the USOC.

Early History (Pre-1896): Initial Conflicts and Resulting Progress

American interest in sports has always been strong; however, it was not until after the Civil War that this interest really began to expand. Strong emphasis was put on athletics by college and university student bodies without, it should be noted, the enthusiastic support of faculties and administrations. After 1870, the continued growth of intercollegiate athletics and its corresponding problems led many of those involved to conclude that acceptable standards relating to athletics had to be developed and organized or that intercollegiate sports had to be eliminated. The first option was chosen and by 1876 controls on amateur athletic club sports participation included athlete identification, amateur standing guarantees, entry fee requirements and an arrangement whereby athletic clubs honored one another's members at Games. In 1888, the American Athletic Union (AAU) was formed. Its birth had been gradually brought about by the New York Athletic Club's withdrawal of support from the National Association of Amateur Athletics of America (NAAAA) in 1866. By the summer of 1889, the AAU had essentially gained control of amateur athletics, and, early in this period, the AAU Board of Governors passed a resolution that barred any amateur athlete from competing in any games not under the rules of the AAU. The AAU's requirements for the sanctioning of games and for the registration of athletes—two of the primary methods of controlling amateur athletics and raising revenue—were to become sources of controversy and misunderstanding in the years to come.

Initial Growth (1896-1919)

Revival of the Olympic Games

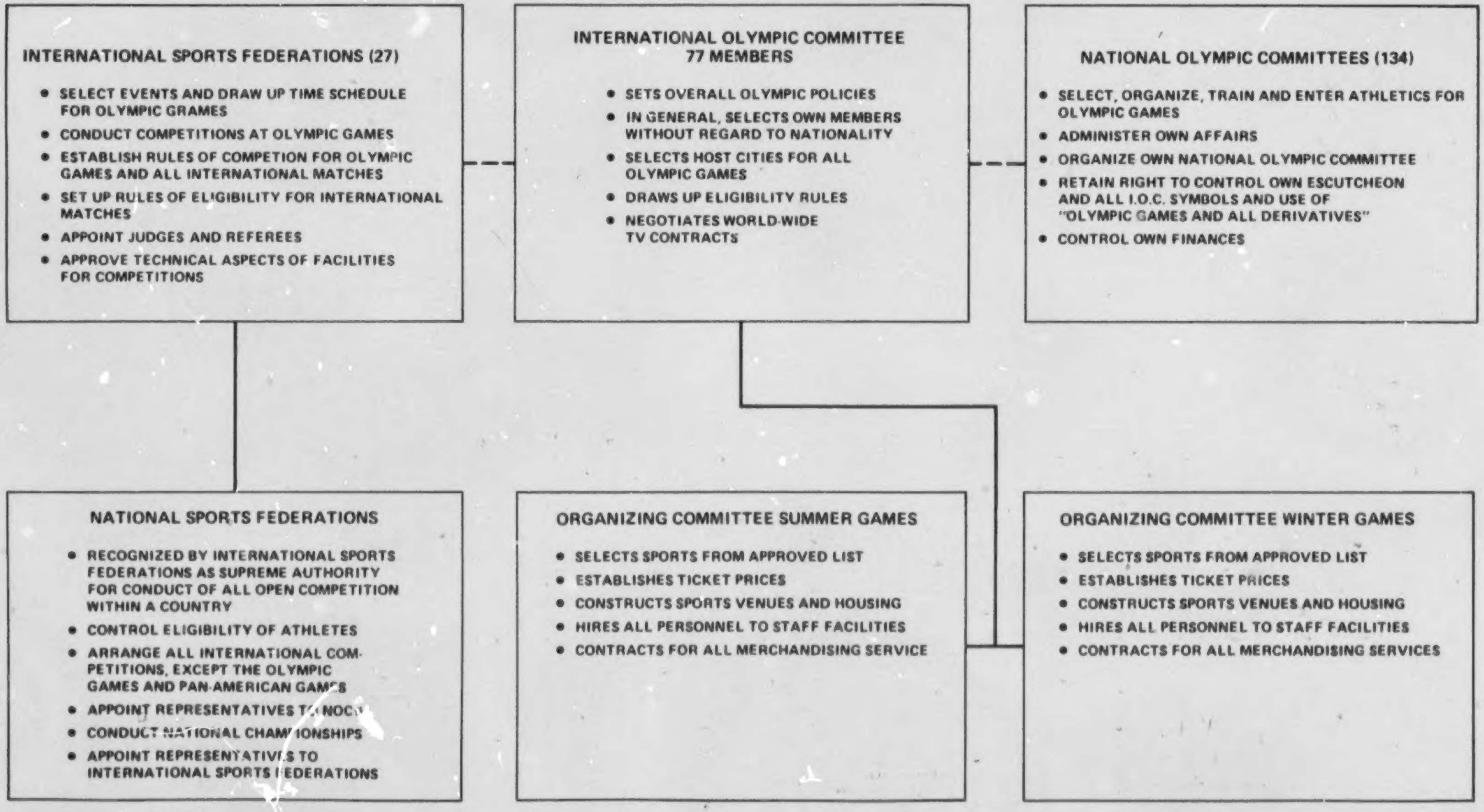
The revival of the Olympic Games was the result of the desire by Baron Pierre de Coubertin, of France, to rekindle the Olympic spirit and develop international competition as a means of promoting friendship, understanding and peace among nations.

The Olympic Games were not revived by Baron de Coubertin merely to give contestants an opportunity to win medals or break records. His idea was that the Games could:

- Bring to the attention of the world the fact that a national program of physical training and competitive sports could develop stronger and healthier men and women. But more important, they would make better citizens through the character building of Games participation;

ORGANIZATION CHART 1

FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATION CHART OF CONSTITUENT BODIES CONNECTED WITH THE OLYMPIC GAMES



INTERNATIONAL SPORTS FEDERATIONS (27)

- SELECT EVENTS AND DRAW UP TIME SCHEDULE FOR OLYMPIC GRAMES
- CONDUCT COMPETITIONS AT OLYMPIC GAMES
- ESTABLISH RULES OF COMPETION FOR OLYMPIC GAMES AND ALL INTERNATIONAL MATCHES
- SET UP RULES OF ELIGIBILITY FOR INTERNATIONAL MATCHES
- APPOINT JUDGES AND REFEREES
- APPROVE TECHNICAL ASPECTS OF FACILITIES FOR COMPETITIONS

INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEE
77 MEMBERS

- SETS OVERALL OLYMPIC POLICIES
- IN GENERAL, SELECTS OWN MEMBERS WITHOUT REGARD TO NATIONALITY
- SELECTS HOST CITIES FOR ALL OLYMPIC GAMES
- DRAWS UP ELIGIBILITY RULES
- NEGOTIATES WORLD-WIDE TV CONTRACTS

NATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEES (134)

- SELECT, ORGANIZE, TRAIN AND ENTER ATHLETICS FOR OLYMPIC GAMES
- ADMINISTER OWN AFFAIRS
- ORGANIZE OWN NATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEE
- RETAIN RIGHT TO CONTROL OWN ESCUTCHEON AND ALL I.O.C. SYMBOLS AND USE OF "OLYMPIC GAMES AND ALL DERIVATIVES"
- CONTROL OWN FINANCES

NATIONAL SPORTS FEDERATIONS

- RECOGNIZED BY INTERNATIONAL SPORTS FEDERATIONS AS SUPREME AUTHORITY FOR CONDUCT OF ALL OPEN COMPETITION WITHIN A COUNTRY
- CONTROL ELIGIBILITY OF ATHLETES
- ARRANGE ALL INTERNATIONAL COMPETITIONS, EXCEPT THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND PAN-AMERICAN GAMES
- APPOINT REPRESENTATIVES TO NOCs
- CONDUCT NATIONAL CHAMPIONSHIPS
- APPOINT REPRESENTATIVES TO INTERNATIONAL SPORTS FEDERATIONS

ORGANIZING COMMITTEE SUMMER GAMES

- SELECTS SPORTS FROM APPROVED LIST
- ESTABLISHES TICKET PRICES
- CONSTRUCTS SPORTS VENUES AND HOUSING
- HIRES ALL PERSONNEL TO STAFF FACILITIES
- CONTRACTS FOR ALL MERCHANDISING SERVICE

ORGANIZING COMMITTEE WINTER GAMES

- SELECTS SPORTS FROM APPROVED LIST
- ESTABLISHES TICKET PRICES
- CONSTRUCTS SPORTS VENUES AND HOUSING
- HIRES ALL PERSONNEL TO STAFF FACILITIES
- CONTRACTS FOR ALL MERCHANDISING SERVICES

- Demonstrate the principles of fair play and good sportsmanship;
- Stimulate interest in the fine arts through exhibitions, concerts, and demonstrations during the Games period, and thus contribute to a broader and more well-rounded life;
- Teach that sports are played for fun and enjoyment (not to make money), and that with dedication to the task at hand the reward will take care of itself; and
- Create international amity and goodwill.

These objectives provided a philosophical framework for early Olympic Games participation.

Early Organizers

When the Olympic Games were revived in 1896, the task of arousing American interest and participation at the Games in Athens was accepted by James E. Sullivan. With the consent and approval of the IOC and assistance from William Sloan and Arthur Burnham, Sullivan organized an American Olympic Committee (AOC). The first U. S. Olympic team was made up largely of athletic club and collegiate athletes and was very successful in track and field events, although officially there was no winning nation.

The next Olympic Games were held in 1900 in Paris and the United States was represented by a 55-member team composed primarily of college athletes as well as a few unattached members. The team that represented the U. S. in the Games of 1904 at St. Louis was composed of athletic club members mostly from New York, Chicago and Milwaukee. Interestingly enough, although the AOC had been formed and recognized by the IOC in 1896, it was not until the 1906 Olympic Games that the United States was represented by a team officially selected by the AOC. The AOC had secured the services of President Theodore Roosevelt as Honorary Chairman and had financed the U. S. Olympic team through contributions solicited on a nationwide basis. As in the past, the 1906 35-member U. S. team concentrated on the track and field events and was, again, very successful. However, increased interest in other nations, coupled with their success in sports such as wrestling, swimming, rowing, soccer, football, weightlifting and cycling made it apparent that if future U. S. Olympic teams were to succeed, they would have to be represented by a larger number of athletes participating in a greater number of sports events.

Although the AOC functioned through 1921 without a constitution, bylaws or rules of procedure, it was apparent that the days of voluntary representation in the Olympic Games by American athletes were gone. Thus, it fell to the AAU to perform the primary role of planning and conducting U. S. participation in the Games through the AOC, since the AAU was the only athletic body then in existence capable of conducting such a task. But the subsequent emergence of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) gave American colleges and universities an opportunity to play a key role in future U. S. Olympic efforts.

Establishment of the NCAA – 1905-1910

Criticism of violence in the game of football and recognition of this problem by President Theodore Roosevelt in 1905 resulted in a meeting of interested colleges and universities. Ultimately, 38 colleges and universities ratified the constitution of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association (IAA) of the United States. In 1910, the name was changed to the National Collegiate Athletic Association. Captain Palmer Pierce of the U. S. Military Academy was elected first president of the Association. He stated that its purpose was to regulate and supervise college athletics throughout the U. S. in order to maintain athletic activities on a high ethical plane in keeping with the dignity and purpose of education.

Although the first Constitution of the IAA did not include definition of the term amateur, it did set forth a basic stand on amateurism. The Constitution prohibited inducements to players entering colleges or universities because of their athletic abilities, the singling out of prominent athletes to influence them to enter a particular educational institution, participation of athletes who were not amateurs, the playing of any athletes other than bona fide students, and unsportsmanlike conduct of any sort. In addition, the Constitution included suggested minimum requirements for eligibility, although no machinery was established to enforce the recommended rules.

As Dr. A. W. Flath, in his "History of Relations Between the NCAA and AAU, 1905-1963," states that with the AAU already in operation since 1888 and with the IAA just launched, the idea of control of amateur athletics had been established in the U. S. in principle, if not in fact, by 1906. And, although it may not have been evident by that time, the relations between these two sports bodies were to have a significant impact on both amateur athletics in the U. S. and Olympic sports movement.

AAU Olympic Control (1908-1922)

The 1908 Olympic Games, originally scheduled for Rome, had to be moved to London because the Italian Olympic Committee could not make the necessary arrangements. Although this move appeared to be a positive one, the 1908 Games turned out to be one of the most controversial on record. The key participants in the controversy, which developed over the handling of the Games, were the AAU and British Olympic Council. Complaints were directed at British Olympic officials' rulings and decisions pertaining to many of the sports events. The controversies and disputes of the 1908 Games led many to conclude that the Olympic Games should be abandoned. However, Baron de Coubertin's pleas for continuing the Games were successful, and Sweden was selected for the 1912 Olympic Games. The Games at Stockholm, in the opinion of many observers, were the best of the Olympic series up to that time. One of the lasting memories of the 1912 Games was the great success of Jim Thorpe, who was stripped of his medals and records in 1913 after it was discovered he had received money for playing minor league baseball.

World War I interrupted the sequence of the Olympic Games. Though the World War resulted in the cancellation of the Games scheduled for Berlin in 1916, it did not quiet feelings of dissatisfaction with purported AAU Olympic control within the United States. The dissatisfaction had been expressed many times in the past, but up to this time there had been no break in NCAA-AAU relationships. However, the handling of past Olympic teams and the resumption of the Games in 1920 provided the impetus for open disagreements between these two sports bodies in the 1920s.

Prior to the 1920 Games, a meeting was held in 1918 by former members of the Olympic Committee. At this meeting, it was decided that a continuing committee would be formed to represent the various organizations interested in the Olympic Games, and invitations were sent to selected groups. In 1919, the IOC announced that Antwerp, Belgium, would be the site of the 1920 Olympic Games. Soon after, the AOC met, accepted the resignation of Colonel Thompson, who was retiring, and elected Gustave Kirby as the new President. The selection of the 1920 U. S. Olympic team members, coaches, and trainers was made by a Team Selection Committee appointed by President Kirby.

Turnabout – The Twenties (1920-1929)

Early Problems

In February of 1920, the Secretaries of the Army and Navy were invited to become Honorary Vice Presidents of the AOC. This was viewed as a positive decision on the part of the AOC since it enhanced the prestige of the U. S. among other nations competing at Antwerp. In addition, a resolution was passed by the U. S. Congress and signed by President Wilson that allowed the Secretary of War to grant transportation for the U. S. Olympic team on Army transport. This initially appeared to be a blessing since it afforded the AOC a potential saving of over $70,000. However, because early post-war shipping problems still remained, the transportation of the U. S. Olympic team to Antwerp turned out to be one of the major problems for the AOC.

Transportation was originally arranged on the S.S. Northern Pacific, a large, fast vessel. Unfortunately, this ship became disabled and team accommodations were transferred to the S.S. Princess Matoika – a much older, slower vessel. Conditions aboard the Princess Matoika were crowded and uncomfortable and led to strongly voiced discontent and indignation among members of the Olympic team. Charges of inefficiency were made against the AOC.

Team dissatisfaction increased when the team arrived in Antwerp and found itself assigned to a large schoolhouse at Melle. The team charged that living conditions were totally unacceptable, and general discontent prevailed. As the Games got underway, the feud between the athletes and the AOC was put aside and the U. S. once again did very well in competition. Unfortunately, the trip home was no improvement over the initial crossing. The charges and complaints concerning the management and arrangements for the 1920 Games were so damaging that a complete reorganization was called for, with the NCAA supporting the effort for reform.

Establishment of the American Olympic Association

In response to continuing demands for change, the AOC appointed a Committee on Reorganization in 1920. In February of 1921, the AOC accepted the report of its Committee on Reorganization, and the American Olympic Association (AOA) was created. The AOA was established as a permanent body charged with the responsibility to conduct American preparation for the Olympic Games. According to the plan adopted, the AAU would have the greatest power in the AOA.

Formation of the National Amateur Athletic Federation

The NCAA declined to join the AOA under its proposed structure, supporting instead the creation of a National Amateur Athletic Federation.

The Army, Navy and YMCA also declined to join the AOA. A Constitution and Bylaws for the establishment of the National Amateur Athletic Federation (NAAF) were adopted in 1922. Though the NCAA supported the organization, it did not join the Federation and later became a constituent member. The NAAF expressed a desire to join the Olympic Association believing it should have equal voting power with the AAU. The AAU argued against such parity. At this point, Colonel Thompson, then President of the AOA, approved the necessary voting changes that allowed the NCAA, Army, Navy and YMCA to join the AOA without reservation.

Controversies and Changes

In 1924, conflict between the NCAA and AAU broke out anew over the Charles Paddock affair. Paddock was declared ineligible for that year's U. S. Olympic Team Trials because he competed in the University games held in Paris without the approval of the AAU. At the December 1923 meeting, the NCAA had declared that American colleges and universities would reserve the right to determine the eligibility of their students to compete in intercollegiate meets in the U. S. and elsewhere. The NCAA further stated their recognition of the AOA as having complete jurisdiction over matters pertaining to Olympic Game representation. After much debate, Paddock was reinstated by the AAU. Though this particular controversy was ended, it did not terminate the NCAA's dissatisfaction with the AAU's Olympic role.

The internal U. S. conflicts that preceded the 1924 Games did not deter the successful handling of American Olympic participation by Colonel Thompson. In contrast to 1920, U.S. Olympic team selection and accommodation arrangements for the 1924 Olympics were handled well.

The year 1925 has been termed "the lull before the storm," a respite before the struggle for control that ensued the following year. The fight between the NCAA, NAAF, YMCA and allied bodies on one side, and the AAU and its allied bodies on the other came to a head in November 1926. In the end, the AAU bloc was able to elect William Prout as President of the AOA. This election was followed by the withdrawal of the NCAA, NAAF, YMCA, Navy, Marine Corps and the Big Ten Conference from the AOA. It appeared that development of the 1928 American Olympic team might be an all-AAU venture. This situation changed with the death of Mr. Prout in 1927. General Douglas MacArthur was elected President of the AOA and succeeded in getting the defecting organizations to rejoin the AOA for the 1928 Games. MacArthur stated that the organization of the 1928 Games by the Dutch in Amsterdam was excellent. He suggested that financing of the Olympic movement be put on a more solid basis and further proposed an endowment fund of $2 million. He also called for a revision of amateur sports and was supported in this call by President Pierce of the NCAA.

AOA President Avery Brundage, elected in 1928, was successful, following the 1928 Olympics, in amending registration procedures to the general satisfaction of both the NCAA and the AAU. The NCAA met with AOA in December 1929 to prepare recommendations for the reorganization of the AOA. In turn, the AOA Executive Committee appointed a special committee charged with the revision of the AOA Constitution and Bylaws. The revised Constitution was unanimously adopted at the AOA quadrennial meeting in November 1930.

Compromise and Controversy—The Thirties (1930-1939)

Revision of the AOA Constitution

The reorganization of the AOA in 1930 and the revision of its Constitution met with the approval of the NCAA and led to the adoption of an alliance agreement between the NCAA and the AAU. This turn of events also allowed the AOA to turn its attention to the Olympic Games of 1932, where, for the first time, both Olympic Winter and Summer Games were to be held in the United States.

With the 1932 Games came a new spirit of cooperation among the American sports bodies. At a time when the civilized countries of the world were still feeling the brunt of economic depression, the Games of 1932 were successful beyond the hopes of enthusiastic promoters. The reorganization of the AOA had accomplished its purpose: Peace and cooperation among the amateur sports bodies. However, this spirit of cooperation was severely tested during the preparations for the 1936 Games in Berlin.

Controversy of the 1936 Games

Many supporters of the AAU, NCAA and AOA were against American participation in the Berlin Games for political reasons. The AAU was split on American participation, but its convention delegates rejected an attempt to keep American athletes from participating. The NCAA and the AOA also narrowly supported American participation in the Berlin Games. The U. S. did participate in the 1936 Games and succeeded in dominating the track and field events.

Compromise and Friction

Following the 1936 Games, the NCAA called for and obtained an equal number of AOA Games Committee members in the sports of boxing, wrestling, gymnastics, basketball, ice hockey, field handball and men's swimming. The AOA adopted a compromise agreement to this effect at the quadrennial meeting. Although the NCAA was still not totally satisfied with AAU eligibility and sanctioning power within the AOA, it did not make an issue of it at that time.

The Forties (1940-1949)

The 1940 Olympic Games were awarded to Tokyo; however, Japan relinquished the Games in 1938 because of disruptive political conditions in the Orient. The Games were then awarded to Helsinki. But with the outbreak of war in Europe, it was apparent that they could not be held.

Pan American Games

In 1933, the AAU proposed the idea of staging a Pan American Games since cancellation of the 1940 Olympics appeared imminent. In 1940, the AAU appointed a committee to investigate the possibility of organizing the Pan American games. In addition to AAU representation, the NCAA and other sports bodies were invited to be represented on the committee. At the 1940 AAU Convention, the AOA and the AAU combined their efforts in promoting the Pan American games. Finally, in December of 1940, a new proposal was presented to the AOA membership, including the NCAA, concerning the organization of the Pan American games.

In order to gain jurisdiction over the Pan American games in 1941, the AOA changed its name to the United States of America Sports Federation. The Federation was to function through a U. S. Olympic Committee for Olympic Games and through a Pan American Committee for games limited to the Western Hemisphere. However, with the bombing of Pearl Harbor in 1941 and declaration of war by the U. S., the Sports Federation announced withdrawal from the Pan American games.

U. S. Olympic Association

With the end of World War II in 1945, the U. S. Sports Federation, at its quadrennial meeting, changed its name to the United States Olympic Association (USOA) and reelected Avery Brundage as president of the Association. Faced with common problems following World War II, the AAU and the NCAA agreed to adopt a formal "Articles of Alliance," a document which recognized their common goals and expressed mutual interest in continuing to pursue them.

With the NCAA and AAU operating under the Articles of Alliance, and in cooperation with the USOA, efforts were made to raise more than $.5 million for the U. S. Olympic teams' participation in the 1948 Games in London. Despite the ravages of war in Britain, the Olympic spirit was rekindled, and the 1948 Games, though an "austere" presentation, were a success.

Internationalism and Incorporation – The Fifties (1950-1959)

Public Law 805

In 1950 the incorporation of the USOA was approved by Congress as Public Law 805. The primary benefit of PL 805 was the granting to the USOA of exclusive rights to Olympic trademarks, symbols and terminology.

Amateurism Becomes An Issue

In 1952, Kenneth Wilson was elected as president of the USOA. Also during that year Avery Brundage, by now President of the IOC, warned that subsidized college athletes receiving other than forms of grants-in-aid or legitimate scholarships would be ineligible for the 1952 Olympics. At their Convention in 1952, the NCAA revised the financial aid provision of its Constitution as it related to its member athletes. Later, in June of 1954, a "Conference of Conferences" was held involving the NCAA, AAU and the National Federation of State High School Associations to discuss ways and means of strengthening the amateur ideal. Also in 1954, the NCAA established a permanent Olympic Committee to carry out NCAA Olympic functions.

Russian Competition and Politics in the Games

In 1952, Russian athletes participated in the Olympics for the first time since 1912. Differences of opinion between the U. S. and the U.S.S.R. regarding the methods of scoring led Avery Bundage to remark that one of the great dangers facing the Olympic Games was "excessive nationalism."

The 1956 Olympic Games in Melbourne were conducted while "cold war" political activities were taking place around the world. Once again, the spectre of nationalism became an issue in the "scoring race" between the U. S. and the U.S.S.R.

USOA's Achievement of Sound Financial Status

Following the 1956 Games, the USOA reported a financial surplus that would provide an annual income of approximately $95,000—enough to finance year-to-year USOA administrative costs. This sound financial status would also permit all contributions to be directed toward the financing of team expenses in the Pan American and Olympic Games.

There was also an effort during this period to establish a bilateral agreement between the NCAA and the AAU for a common and consistent amateur code. The AAU suggested reaffirmation of the Articles of Alliance with certain modifications. The NCAA voted to accept the modifications pertaining to amateurism at their Annual Convention in 1960.

Strained Organizational Relationships

Although not publicized, a number of incidents and an accumulation of complaints were growing during the 1950s against the AAU's administration of amateur sports. These grievances ultimately led to the cancellation of the Articles of Alliance between the NCAA and the AAU.

Challenge and Changes—The Sixties (1960-1969)

The cancellation of the Articles of Alliance between the AAU and NCAA was largely unnoticed because of the anticipation of the 1960 Olympic Games in Rome. Once again, the U.S.S.R. outdistanced the U. S. in total medal distribution and won its second unofficial Olympic title.

Organization and Operations

In early 1960, the NCAA Executive Committee made a formal request to the USOA to undertake a complete review of the USOA organization and operations. During the same period, the Chairman of the USOA's Development Committee stressed the need for a greater emphasis on the Olympic development program if the prestige of the U. S. was to be upheld.

Also in 1961, the USOA became known as the United States Olympic Committee (USOC).

Formation of Federations

One of the important developments affecting the Olympic movement in the early 1960's occurred in October of 1961, when 88 individuals representing a variety of sports organizations met to discuss the feasibility of forming new federations in several different sports. The AAU was invited by the NCAA to join the Federation movement and be responsible for all administrative details connected with international competition. Although the AAU declined the invitation, this movement was the subject of much interest and discussion on the part of the participants. In 1962 separate federations in basketball, track and field, baseball, wrestling and gymnastics were established.

Differences between the NCAA and AAU worsened with the approval of a sanctioning and athletic certification by the U. S. Track and Field Federation (USTFF) in August, 1962.

Finally, with the Federations formed, the Executive Committee of the NCAA voted in August 1962 to disband the Committee it had appointed to conduct negotiations with the AAU.

Amateurism—An Issue Again

In September of 1962, the IOC added fuel to the fires of discontent in U. S. amateur sports by banning from future Olympic Games all "state amateurs" subsidized by their governments, as well as college athletes who were the recipient of scholarships based primarily on athletic ability. This ruling and its impact on the U. S. Olympic team was interpreted differently by Avery Brundage, President of the IOC, and Walter Byers, Executive Director of the NCAA. Brundage maintained that about half of the American Olympic team would be disqualified if the rule was rigidly enforced. The NCAA, on the other hand, indicated that the overwhelming majority of U. S. competitors would have no difficulty in meeting the IOC's criteria.

Federal Intervention

The continued difficulties between the NCAA and the AAU concerning the lack of AAU recognition of the Federations, coupled with the apparent fight for overall control of amateur sports, led Attorney General Robert Kennedy to acknowledge the interest and concern of the federal government in this matter. A meeting was held in Washington, D. C., during October 1962 and attended by representatives of the USOC, AAU, NCAA, Federations, YMCA, NAIA and Government officials. The representatives agreed in principle to a plan concerning sports federations, events, sanctions and scheduling of amateur contests, with final agreement subject to action by the respective governing boards. This plan became known as the Washington Alliance and the parties agreed to meet again in New York City in November 1962 to ratify the agreement. Attorney General Kennedy attended the subsequent meeting in November 1962 at Olympic House in New York in an attempt to mediate a truce between the AAU and NCAA. The key point in the dispute was the question of open competition. The next day a coalition agreement (later known as the Olympic House Coalition) was drafted, subject to ratification of the parent bodies. However, in late November 1962, the AAU's Executive Committee endorsed a plan that, according to the U. S. Track and Field Federation, repudiated the original Olympic House Coalition. The failure of the coalition led President John Kennedy to request that the sports leaders submit their dispute to arbitration. General Douglas MacArthur accepted the President's appointment as arbitrator. After much difficulty, General MacArthur announced in January 1963 that agreement between the AAU and NCAA had been reached. The agreement, which was to become known as the MacArthur Plan, essentially established the basis for a moratorium until after the 1964 Olympic Games, and provided the thrust for stronger American participation in the 1964 Games.

The 1964 Tokyo Games were considered by those who participated to be well managed. Although the U. S. had many brilliant individual performances, the U.S.S.R. again won the most medals.

Sulger Amendment

In 1965, the USOC passed the Sulger Amendment which mandated that the majority of votes by each sport committee for the Olympic Games be reserved for the governing body in that sport. This amendment was considered a logical step by most of the members. However the president of the USOC spoke against the Amendment. In addition, the Armed Services, YMCA and American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, voted with the NCAA and the National Federation of State High School Associations against the Amendment.

Proposed Withdrawal by the NCAA from the USOC

In 1966, NCAA delegates to the U. S. Olympic organization and members of the NCAA Olympic Committee recommended to the NCAA Council that the organization withdraw from the Olympic organization. However, the NCAA president and incoming chairman of the NCAA Olympic Committee argued against the recommendations. Their reasoning prevailed and was ultimately upheld by the Council.

Sports Arbitration Board (Kheel)

The Sports Arbitration Board, headed by Theodore Kheel, was appointed by Vice President Humphrey as a result of action in the U. S. Senate. The Kheel Board was created to develop recommendations for the settlement of "disputes relating to the conduct, development, and protection of amateur athletics." The Board concentrated on track and field problems and sought to induce parties in such disputes (AAU, NCAA, NAIA and USTFF) to reach a voluntary settlement. The Board members unanimously agreed that the formation of a new, single organization to govern and promote track and field sports was in order. The Board had to abandon its plans for a new track and field federation because it could not gain the willing cooperation of the parties. The shortcomings of the Kheel Board can be traced to: Dealing with problems of only one sport; not being able to enforce findings; and having to rely on the voluntary cooperation of the parties in conflict.

Although during the sixties attempts were made by representatives of the federal government to intervene in and arbitrate a number of conflicts between amateur sports leaders, success in this area can only be classified as marginal. To illustrate this point and the feeling of some of the sports leaders toward the USOC, the following comment was made in a letter to the USOC by a representative of the high schools ". . . Organizations that have the largest regularized competitive program in the U. S., and which administer athletics for over one and one-half million boys and increasing number of girls, are not represented in the development program of the nations' Olympic Committee." This statement is indicative of the discontent that was still prevalent as the Olympic sports movement entered the 1970's.

Recent History (1970-1976)

The outcome of the USOC biennial meeting at the Greenbrier Hotel near Lewisburg, West Virginia, in 1971 was a disappointment to the NCAA. The adoption of the so-called Greenbrier Amendment did not meet with NCAA approval.

The Amendment required that before any national organization could seek affiliation with an ISF as a national sports governing body, it would have to obtain approval from two-thirds of the USOC Board of Directors. (This requirement was later changed to a simple majority vote.)

The NCAA felt that this amendment would make it virtually impossible for an incumbent franchise holder to be removed since the Board was composed of representatives of the national governing bodies which might be supplanted. It would be very difficult to obtain a favorable vote from the Board under these circumstances, the NCAA reasoned. The NCAA had previously supported the applications of at least two sports federations applying for international franchises to replace AAU-governed franchises as the governing body.

The Greenbrier Amendment was also contrary to the spirit of the rules of the international sports federation. While many international federations require that a country's NOC or highest sports confederation certify that an organization is recognized as the national governing body for a given sport and therefore eligible to become affiliated with the respective international federation, there is no provision in any international federations rules which require a country's NOC to prevent an organization from making an application seeking recognition as the franchise holder. Ultimately, only international federations may accept or reject an application of a franchise holder.

Despite the Greenbrier amendment, the USOC has never viewed itself as this country's highest confederation of sport or highest sports authority. In the early 1970s a meeting was held at Winnipeg, Canada, attended by the NOCs of the Pan American countries. Each of these NOCs recognized themselves as the highest sports authority in their country. The USOC did not join in this assertion because it did not feel there was any organization in charge of amateur sports in the U. S., and because it did not believe it had the specific authority to take such a step.

In the spring of 1972, the USOC Board of Directors met at Bartlesville, Oklahoma. At this meeting, the AAU was reinstated as the Group A member for wrestling, and the President of the USOC was directed to send a letter to the international wrestling federation (FILA) certifying the AAU as the Group A member. (For details on the wrestling controversy, see the wrestling report in this volume.) This action, although democratically reached, further exacerbated tensions between the AAU and NCAA, as well as between the USOC and NCAA.

The 1972 Olympic Games at Munich resulted in much adverse publicity for the USOC. Two sprinters missed their 100-meter race, and Rick DeMont, a swimmer, lost his Gold Medal for taking a drug for asthma which was not on the IOC list. The USOC was blamed for these occurrences. These and other developments at the Munich Games created public image problems for the USOC.

In late 1972, the NCAA withdrew from the USOC. Several reasons account for the NCAA's action. As previously illustrated, the NCAA was opposed to the Sulger and Greenbrier amendments as well as the action taken by the USOC Board of Directors at Bartlesville that recognized the AAU as the franchise holder for wrestling. In addition, the NCAA viewed the USOC as unresponsive to meaningful change, dominated by the AAU, and thus unwilling to give the NCAA and its allies in the school/college community appropriate representation. Finally, the apparent mismanagement of U. S. Olympic interests at Munich provided further reason for the NCAA's withdrawal.

In February 1973 at the Colorado Springs USOC Quadrennial Meeting, Philip O. Krumm was elected President of the USOC for the upcoming quadrennial period. Mr. Krumm succeeded Clifford H. Buck, who was elected President in February 1970. Mr. Buck took over for Franklin L. Orth, who died in office, in January 1970.

Due to increasing concern by many over the apparent intensity of conflict within amateur sports in the U. S., the problems at the 1972 Games at Munich (missed starting times, basketball officiating and the Rick DeMont incident being the major items), and in some cases concern over the performance of U. S. teams at the Olympics, a flurry of bills dealing with amateur sports were considered by Congress between 1972 and 1974. None of the legislation was acted upon by both the House and Senate during the 93rd Congress. The bills, therefore, expired at the end of the 93rd Congress.

Committee for a Better Olympics

A Committee for a Better Olympics was formed following the 1972 Olympics. The Committee, which was largely sponsored by the NCAA and was composed of athletes and representatives of numerous organizations involved in U. S. amateur sports, was self-designated. The primary concern of the Committee was to explore possibilities for improving the United States' participation in international competition. Their activities focused on the restructuring of the USOC.

The Committee for a Better Olympics concluded its study in the spring of 1973. The major thrust of their conclusions was to recommend that the USOC be restructured so that each state would have its own Olympic Committee.

Orlando Meeting

The USOC held its biennial meeting in Orlando, Florida, in December 1974. At this meeting, a number of major revisions were made to the USOC Constitution. Many of these revisions were in response to increasing outside and Congressional pressures to restructure the USOC. Several changes reflected the thrusts provided in a bill introduced in Congress by Congressman Bob Mathias in November of 1973. The Constitution was revised to provide for challenge procedures to existing international sports franchise holders using the American Arbitration Association. An Athlete's Bill of Rights was passed, and the Greenbrier and Sulger Amendments were repealed. The adoption of franchise challenge provisions eliminated any perceived need for the Greenbrier Amendment. The Sulger Amendment became unnecessary following the elimination of games committees for each sport after the 1976 Olympics. After the 1976 Olympics the sports governing bodies became solely responsible for selecting and fielding the U. S. Olympic team in their sport. Changes in the membership of the Executive Committee and Board of Directors were made as well as changes in the membership classifications and reallocation of voting power in these membership classifications.

The constitutional changes, for the most part, did not affect the procedures by which the 1976 Olympic teams were selected and fielded at Innsbruck and Montreal. The notable exception was the Athlete's Bill of Rights provision, which was used to settle a number of disputes arising between athletes and sports organizations within the USOC. Other changes, such as the franchise challenge provision, have not been used so far, although some challenges are expected during the first challenge period. Changes in the sports committees, voting allocation and membership classification will not have any real effect until the Quadrennial Meeting in 1977.

The NCAA prepared a detailed criticism of the changes made in the USOC constitution at Orlando. In general, the NCAA believes that the USOC "failed to meet a direct challenge to enact a meaningful reorganization which would make possible new leadership and a fresh approach for the U. S. Olympic effort." Major criticisms by the NCAA of the Orlando changes were made in the following three areas:

- Structure of the USOC,
- Provisions relating to Group A members, and
- Protection of athletes.

The NCAA criticized the USOC for not changing the structure of the USOC to provide adequate representation for athletes and the public and for failing to adopt provisions that would reduce the dominance of the Group A members throughout the USOC. The NCAA further charged that the changes made with respect to Group A members were designed to increase their power and further diminish the possibility of removing the incumbent franchise holders. The Athlete's Bill of Rights adopted at the Orlando meeting was also criticized for not providing the athlete with adequate protection against unreasonable national rules or the unreasonable application of international rules.

Shortly after the Orlando meeting, the United States Gymnastics Federation (USGF) and the NCAA filed suit against the USOC, complaining that some of the Orlando amendments were invalid in that they were adopted as a result of procedures prohibited by the USOC's own Constitution. (*United States Gymnastics Federation*, et al v. *United States Olympic Committee*, et al, Superior Court of the District of Columbia, C.A. 72-75.) The major complaint of the USGF and NCAA appears to involve certain amendments purporting to give national amateur sports organizations an opportunity to replace incumbent governing bodies. The plaintiffs contended that the amendments were invalidly changed to favor incumbent NGBs. (For a fuller discussion of this issue, see the chapter on Resolution of Franchise Disputes.)

The NCAA reiterated their position at this Commission's public hearings held in New York City in November 1975. The Executive Director stated that the NCAA is "totally convinced that the USOC is incapable of internal reorganization to accomplish the ends the NCAA believes are essential." The major ends to be accomplished are: (1) "the USOC must be established as a representative organization of the United States and its citizens"; (2) "meaningful procedures must be established to make the management of our Olympic affairs responsible to this nation and the athletes"; and (3) "guarantees must be developed whereby the atmosphere of administration and the conditions of training and competition encourage the athlete to participate and be proud to represent the U. S."

NATIONAL ROLE OF THE USOC

The current role of the USOC has expanded beyond that initially defined by the IOC in two areas: funding in sports development programs and the administration of the Pan American Games. The USOC has become involved in generating and granting sports development funds because most of the national governing bodies have been unable to perform these tasks on their own. In addition, because the USOC has had excess funds as a result of its fund-raising successes, it has decided to become involved in sports development.

Administration of U. S. participation in the Pan American Games comes from a natural linkage of the organizations involved in fielding the Olympic and Pan Am teams. Public Law 805 also explicitly grants to the USOC the authority to field the Pan American team.

The USOC has gradually increased its financial support of members of the Olympic team through reimbursement for travel expenses to Olympic trials and through broken-time payments to athletes who must take leaves of absence without pay from work to participate in the Games. In the past, the USOC only provided for transportation to and from the Games and room and board at the Games. Per diem and transportation to training clinics immediately preceding the Games are also provided by the USOC when requested by a sport committee.

Over the years, particularly in 1972, the USOC has been strongly criticized for failing to pay the transportation of athletes to and from the Olympic Trials. Such criticism surfaced at the 1972 Olympic Track and Field Trials in Eugene, Oregon. National governing bodies, however, also bear some of the responsibility for funding such events.

The expanded role of the USOC in financial support to Olympic and Pan American Games athletes has generally been well-received by athletes and sports organizations. However, funding of sports development programs has created concern over the methods for allocating funds among the various Olympic sports and concern over how these monies are spent by recipient organizations. The above areas will be discussed in greater detail in the following sections.

ORGANIZATIONAL DESCRIPTION OF THE USOC

The organizational structure of the USOC is described in this section with an emphasis on how the constitutional requirements are interpreted.

Membership

The USOC is primarily an organization of organizations. There are over 200 of them. Only a few individuals may join as individuals, namely past officers of the USOC who no longer possess membership through member organizations, IOC delegates, and the current officers of the USOC. Organization Chart II on the following page depicts the organizational representation of the USOC.

The USOC has grown into the multi-tiered organization of organizations for two reasons: (1) to maximize participation in the Olympic movement to the greatest number of organizations and individuals and (2) to assist in fund raising through the participation of so many organizations and individuals.

An organization may apply for one of five levels of membership classifications. Member organizations are entitled to varying numbers of representatives or delegates to the USOC, depending upon the type of membership classification held. Some organizations are entitled to membership in more than one classification. This has caused concern by many who feel certain organizations are over-represented due to multi-classification. Also, individual segments of umbrella organizations may have memberships in one category due to their status as a national governing body (NGB). Organizations with Group A memberships are entitled to more delegates and an equal or greater number of votes per delegate than organizations not holding Group A membership. Most of the membership classifications are for organizations, except for Groups G, H, and I, which are for individuals. A brief description of the membership criteria is provided in the following sections.

- –Group A–Those organizations which are recognized by the USOC as the national sports governing bodies and which are U. S. members in International Sports Federations recognized by the IOC for sports eligible for inclusion in the Olympic Games. To be recognized as an NGB by the USOC the competitions upon the Olympic program. To be recognized as an NGB by the USOC the organization must meet several criteria relating to "open" membership and government.

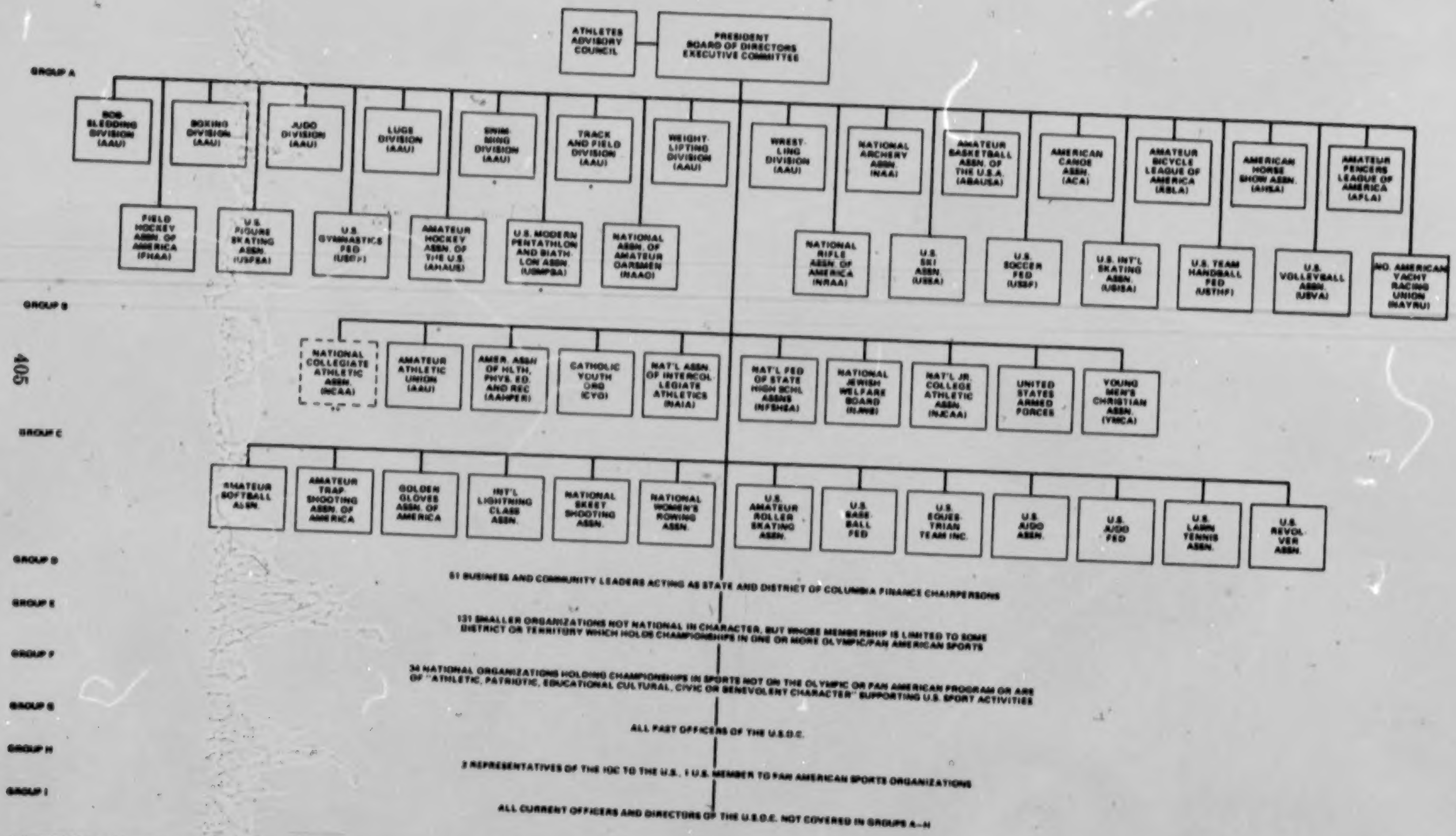
- –Group B–National organizations eligible for Group B are those from which there have come substantial numbers of members of the United States Olympic or Pan American teams in two or more sports, but which are not members of Group A for such sports, and which either hold national championships in two or more such sports on the Olympic or Pan American Programs, or through the constituent or related units of which regular and nationwide competition is fostered and held in two or more of such sports on the Olympic or Pan American programs.

- –Group C–National organizations not members of Group A or Group B which hold national championships or administer nationwide programs in one sport recognized by the International Olympic Committee or the Pan American Sports Organization. A national organization recognized by the USOC as the governing body for a sport which is on the program of the Pan American Games, but not of the Olympic Games, can also be a member of Group C.

- –Group D–The Olympic organization for each of the 50 states and the District of Columbia recognized by the USOC is eligible for membership in Group D. The State Olympic Chairman is nominated by the National

ORGANIZATION CHART II

UNITED STATES OLYMPIC COMMITTEE


ATHLETES ADVISORY COUNCIL
PRESIDENT BOARD OF DIRECTORS EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
GROUP A
BOB-SLEDDING DIVISION (AAU)
BOXING DIVISION (AAU)
JUDO DIVISION (AAU)
LUGE DIVISION (AAU)
SWIM-MING DIVISION (AAU)
TRACK AND FIELD DIVISION (AAU)
WEIGHT-LIFTING DIVISION (AAU)
WREST-LING DIVISION (AAU)
NATIONAL ARCHERY ASSN. (NAA)
AMATEUR BASKETBALL ASSN. OF THE U.S.A. (ABAUSA)
AMERICAN CANOE ASSN. (ACA)
AMATEUR BICYCLE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (ABLA)
AMERICAN HORSE SHOW ASSN. (AHSA)
AMATEUR FENCERS LEAGUE OF AMERICA (AFLA)
FIELD HOCKEY ASSN. OF AMERICA (FHAA)
U.S. FIGURE SKATING ASSN. (USFSA)
U.S. GYMNASTICS FED (USGF)
AMATEUR HOCKEY ASSN. OF THE U.S. (AHAUS)
U.S. MODERN PENTATHLON AND BIATHLON ASSN. (USMPBA)
NATIONAL ASSN. OF AMATEUR OARSMEN (NAAO)
NATIONAL RIFLE ASSN. OF AMERICA (NRAA)
U.S. SKI ASSN. (USSA)
U.S. SOCCER FED (USSF)
U.S. INT'L SKATING ASSN. (USISA)
U.S. TEAM HANDBALL FED (USTHF)
U.S. VOLLEYBALL ASSN. (USVA)
NO. AMERICAN YACHT RACING UNION (NAYRU)
GROUP B
NATIONAL COLLEGIATE ATHLETIC ASSN. (NCAA) **
AMATEUR ATHLETIC UNION (AAU)
AMER. ASSN OF HLTH, PHYS. ED. AND REC (AAHPER)
CATHOLIC YOUTH ORG (CYO)
NAT'L ASSN. OF INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS (NAIA)
NAT'L FED OF STATE HIGH SCHL ASSNS (NFSHSA)
NATIONAL JEWISH WELFARE BOARD (NJWB)
NAT'L JR. COLLEGE ATHLETIC ASSN. (NJCAA)
UNITED STATES ARMED FORCES
YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSN. (YMCA)
GROUP C
AMATEUR SOFTBALL ASSN.
AMATEUR TRAP SHOOTING ASSN. OF AMERICA
GOLDEN GLOVES ASSN. OF AMERICA
INT'L LIGHTNING CLASS ASSN.
NATIONAL SKEET SHOOTING ASSN.
NATIONAL WOMEN'S ROWING ASSN.
U.S. AMATEUR ROLLER SKATING ASSN.
U.S. BASE-BALL FED
U.S. EQUES-TRIAN TEAM INC.
U.S. JUDO ASSN.
U.S. JUDO FED
U.S. LAWN TENNIS ASSN.
U.S. REVOL-VER ASSN.
GROUP D
51 BUSINESS AND COMMUNITY LEADERS ACTING AS STATE AND DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA FINANCE CHAIRPERSONS
GROUP E
131 SMALLER ORGANIZATIONS NOT NATIONAL IN CHARACTER, BUT WHOSE MEMBERSHIP IS LIMITED TO SOME DISTRICT OR TERRITORY WHICH HOLDS CHAMPIONSHIPS IN ONE OR MORE OLYMPIC/PAN AMERICAN SPORTS
GROUP F
34 NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS HOLDING CHAMPIONSHIPS IN SPORTS NOT ON THE OLYMPIC OR PAN AMERICAN PROGRAM OR ARE OF "ATHLETIC, PATRIOTIC, EDUCATIONAL CULTURAL, CIVIC OR BENEVOLENT CHARACTER" SUPPORTING U.S. SPORT ACTIVITIES
GROUP G
ALL PAST OFFICERS OF THE U.S.O.C.
GROUP H
2 REPRESENTATIVES OF THE IOC TO THE U.S., 1 U.S. MEMBER TO PAN AMERICAN SPORTS ORGANIZATIONS
GROUP I
ALL CURRENT OFFICERS AND DIRECTORS OF THE U.S.O.C. NOT COVERED IN GROUPS A–H

* EACH OF THESE GOVERNING BODIES HAS TWICE THE VOTES OF ANY OTHER GOVERNING BODY

** IN 1972, THE NCAA AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS SUCH AS USBF AND REGIONAL ATHLETIC CONFERENCES (i.e. PAC-8, BIG 10, etc.) WITHDREW FROM THE USOC

Fund-Raising Chairman.

- Group E – Organizations eligible for membership in Group E are those which are not national in character but limited in their membership to some district or territory which holds district or territorial championships in one or more of the sports on the Olympic or Pan American programs. They also must be affiliated with an organization in Groups A, B, or C. Group E members who have been duly admitted to membership may continue their membership even though their parent organization ceases to be a member. Regional organizations which are not affiliated with members of Groups A, B, or C, but are active in more than one Olympic or Pan American sport, may be admitted to membership in Group E at the discretion of the Board of Directors.
- Group F – National organizations not eligible for membership in Groups A, B, or C are eligible for Group F if they hold national championships in one or more sports not on the Olympic or Pan American programs or are of an athletic, patriotic, educational, cultural, civic or benevolent character desiring to give support to the participation of the United States in the Olympic or Pan American Games.
- Group G – All past Presidents, Vice Presidents, Secretaries, and Treasurers of the USOC or of past Olympic organizations.
- Group H – Each representative of the IOC to the United States, and the United States member of the Executive Committee of the Pan American Sports Organization (PASO).
- Group I – The current officers and directors, the Counselor, the Executive Director, and the chairmen of the committees of the USOC appointed or approved by the Board of Directors, during the period of their active service in their respective capacities, are eligible for Group I membership.

The members of Group A have a two-thirds voting majority in the USOC although the IOC only requires a simple majority. The USOC has also, beyond the requirements of the IOC, provided the Group A members with a voting majority on both the Executive Committee and the Board of Directors. Group A organizations are entitled to four delegates with ten votes each (except for the sports of aquatics and track and field with eight delegates each), while Group F organizations are entitled to one delegate with one vote. Group A votes may be increased at any meeting of the USOC where the Group A votes total less than two-thirds of the total votes. Other membership classifications have less voting power.

There is no membership classification for current or past athletes except as delegates from membership organizations. Athletes who represent their respective sports are members of the Athletes' Advisory Council (AAC). The current members of the AAC have been appointed by the USOC and have no voting power. Future members of the AAC will be selected by athletes competing in each of the 28 amateur sports sponsored by the USOC. There are, however, seven athletes who currently serve on the Board of Directors and have voting power on the Board. These athletes were selected by the Board for the past quadrennial. For the upcoming quadrennial, the AAC will select the athletes to serve on the Board.

When an organization wishes to apply for membership in the USOC the membership category they desire to apply for must be stated. The USOC Membership Committee provides assistance in ascertaining the correct classification for the applicant. Should the organization insist on applying for a membership classification for which the USOC does not feel they have the necessary qualifications, their application will be denied. Problems have arisen in this area when organizations applied for a particular membership classification and were refused. In 1967, membership applications by the U. S. Track and Field Federation, the Basketball Federation and the U. S. Gymnastics Federation were rejected by the USOC. It is alleged that these organizations insisted on Group A, or national governing body status to become members. Conversely, later testimony by concerned individuals expressed disappointment that these organizations were not accepted even as Group E members. It is not clear whether the above organizations applied for Group E membership at any point in the application process. The Basketball Federation (now ABAUSA) and the U. S. Gymnastics Federation are now Group A members as they are now the recognized governing bodies in their sports.

The membership criteria allow for numerous organizations to join. Questions of parity and reasonableness have often been raised, particularly when the NCAA was a member, such as in Group E where all of the organizations below are represented:

- The Michigan Amateur Hockey Association and the Big Ten Conference;
- The New England Division of the Amateur Fencers League of America and the Eastern Collegiate Athletic Conference;

–The Alaskan AAU and the Pacific Eight Conference; and

–The Eastern Intercollegiate Gymnastic League and the Southern Pacific Association of the AAU.

All of these organizations belong or would belong to Group E (some of the NCAA-affiliated conferences withdrew in 1972). Some are multi-sport groups (e.g., the AAUs and the Pacific 8) and others are single-sport groups.

Many of these smaller organizations are already affiliated with the national governing body in the sport. For example, the Arizona State Rifle and Pistol Association in Group E is a member of the NRA. All the regional AAUs elect (or can elect) representatives to the national AAU governing body in AAU sports. It is also reasonable to assume that all the single-sport organizations are in some way associated with the national governing body for the sport.

Membership consistency is also raised in other classes. In Group B, the CYO and the National Federation of State High School Associations enjoy the same classification and parity of membership. Both organizations are also affiliated with national governing bodies in some of the sports in which they conduct programs. Evidence in the chapters of this report prepared on the high schools and the CYO clearly indicates that both conduct programs in many sports but that the high school role is far greater. In addition, the AAU belongs to Group B, as well as Group A, because it represents sports for which it runs national programs but is not the governing body.

In Group A, as mentioned above, Aquatics and Track and Field enjoy twice the representation of any other sport. The principal rationale for inclusion of this provision was that these two disciplines are more broad-based and successful than any of the other sports and therefore deserve twice the representation. This recommendation spurred considerable debate at Orlando, but it was passed. Aquatics takes in three disciplines (swimming, diving and water polo) but must be one national governing body as a result of international federation rules. Figure and speed skating, on the other hand, are governed by one international federation but are two separate independent NGBs in the U. S.

The apparent complexity over membership does not cease with the examples cited. In Group C, there are national governing bodies for sports recognized by international federations (softball, roller-skating and baseball) as well as organizations which conduct national programs but are not the NGB (Golden Gloves and the National Women's Rowing Association which are both affiliated with their respective NGBs).

Finally, in Group F there are again organizations which are affiliated with Group A (NGB) members and some which are not. For example, the American Sokol Organization, the International Swimming Hall of Fame and the National Association of Basketball Coaches of the U. S. are all affiliated with their respective NGBs. Viable organizations such as the National Association of Collegiate Directors of Athletics (NACDA) are also members of this category. NACDA is composed of a membership that represents multi-sport interests, although many of the coaches associated with each athletic director are involved with an NGB in their sport.

While the definition of membership classification is clear in the USOC Constitution, implementation results in a variety of organizations gaining membership within each classification. Some are members of NGBs; some are not. Some are multi-sport organizations; some are not. The implementation of the membership affiliations therefore often results in organizations being over-represented or under-represented.

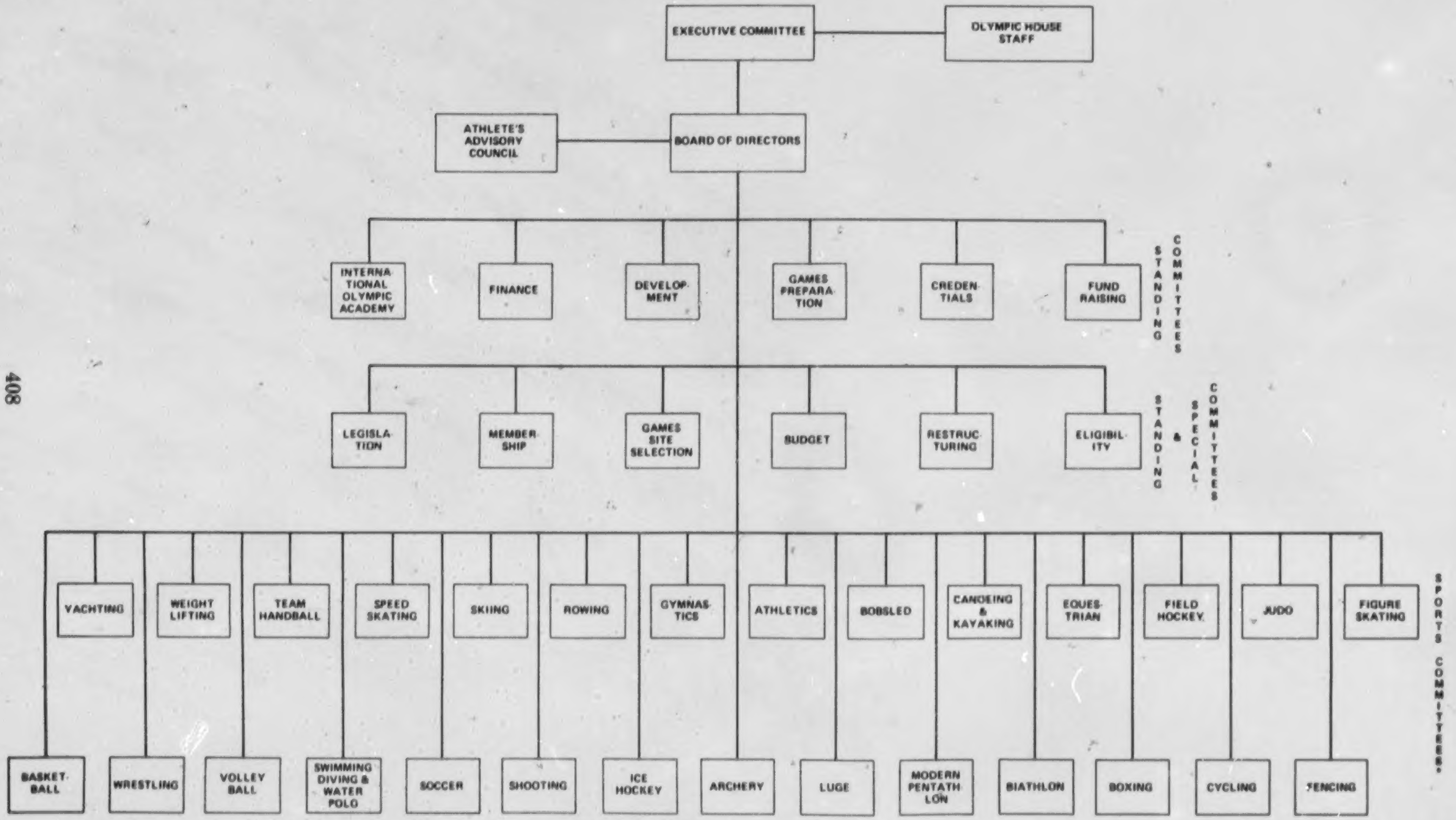
The membership classification of an organization is also related to that organization's representation on the Executive Committee and the Board of Directors of the USOC. Representatives of Groups A and B automatically become members of the Executive Committee and representatives of Groups A, B and C have places on the Board of Directors. Other seats on the Board and Executive Committee are reserved for officers, chairmen of the finance and fund-raising committees and athletes.

Members of Standing Committees are appointed by the President of the USOC and may be from any membership classification. Exceptions are the Fund-Raising Committee, which is composed of Group D members, and the Sports Committees, the structure of which has been changed to consist only of the members of NGBs (Group A members).

Organizational Components

As mentioned earlier, the USOC made extensive changes in its organization at the Orlando meeting. In this section an attempt is made to focus on those elements of the organization that will be functioning during the 1977-80 Quadrennial. The major change is that made in the Sports Committees. Organization Chart III illustrates the functional structure of the USOC during the 1973-76 Quadrennial. For the 1977-80 Quadrennial the functions of the Sports Committees will be assumed by the NGB for their sport. The

ORGANIZATION CHART III
1973–1976 FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATION OF THE USOC


EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
OLYMPIC HOUSE STAFF
ATHLETE'S ADVISORY COUNCIL
BOARD OF DIRECTORS
INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY
FINANCE
DEVELOPMENT
GAMES PREPARATION
CREDENTIALS
FUND RAISING
STANDING COMMITTEES
LEGISLATION
MEMBERSHIP
GAMES SITE SELECTION
BUDGET
RESTRUCTURING
ELIGIBILITY
STANDING & SPECIAL COMMITTEES
YACHTING
WEIGHT LIFTING
TEAM HANDBALL
SPEED SKATING
SKIING
ROWING
GYMNASTICS
ATHLETICS
BOBSLED
CANOEING & KAYAKING
EQUESTRIAN
FIELD HOCKEY
JUDO
FIGURE SKATING
SPORTS COMMITTEES*
BASKETBALL
WRESTLING
VOLLEY BALL
SWIMMING DIVING & WATER POLO
SOCCER
SHOOTING
ICE HOCKEY
ARCHERY
LUGE
MODERN PENTATHLON
BIATHLON
BOXING
CYCLING
FENCING

* SPORTS COMMITTEES AS OF DEC. 1974 FOR OLYMPICS ONLY. MANY SPORTS HAD SEPARATE MEN'S AND WOMEN'S SPORT COMMITTEES. PAN AMERICAN SPORTS NOT SHOWN.

NOTE: PAN AMERICAN AND OTHER SPORTS NOT ON THE OLYMPIC PROGRAM ARE BASEBALL AND SYNCHRONIZED SWIMMING.

President and Secretary of each NGB will constitute a Sports Liaison Committee. The anticipated functional structure of the USOC for the current quadrennial is illustrated in Organization Chart IV. The changes in the Sports Committees are further discussed later in this chapter.

The basic organizational components by function of the USOC for 1977-80 are as follows:

- Executive Committee,
- Board of Directors,
- Standing Committees,
- Sport Liaison Committees, and
- Athletes' Advisory Council.

The functional components of the USOC are also related to the IOC and the International Sports Federations. Organization Chart V illustrates this relationship.

The roles and responsibilities of each of the functional components and the officers of the USOC will be briefly described in the following sections. A formal statement of these roles and responsibilities is contained within the USOC Constitution. These sections will interpret and expand the information in the constitution where appropriate.

Officers of the USOC.

The officers, nominated by the non-officer members of the Executive Committee and elected by the full USOC membership, serve four-year terms. The officers consist of a President, three Vice Presidents, a Secretary and a Treasurer. The First Vice President may succeed the out-going President (who is ineligible for reelection) at the end of his term. Any person nominated by five or more organizations entitled to representation on the Board of Directors of the USOC is eligible to run for a USOC office.

All officers serve on a volunteer basis and are unpaid, except for expenses connected with the office (e.g., travel and per diem to attend meetings). The volunteer status of all members of the USOC is a requirement imposed on the USOC by the IOC.

The President is the Chief Executive Officer and is an ex-officio, non-voting member of each Sport Committee and all other Committees.

The First Vice President assumes the responsibilities of the President in his absence or inability to act. He is a member or chairman of the Games Preparation or the Sports Development Committee.

The Second Vice President assumes the responsibilities of the First Vice President when necessary. He is a member or chairman of the Games Preparation or the Sports Development Committee.

The Third Vice President assumes the responsibilities of the Second Vice President if necessary.

The Secretary serves as Secretary of the Board of Directors and the Executive Committee. He supervises all activities pertaining to documentation and recording of actions of the USOC. He also is a member or chairman of the Committee on Credentials and the Committee on Membership.

The Treasurer has charge of the funds and books of account of the USOC.

In addition, all officers perform duties as assigned by the Board of Directors or by vote of the USOC.

A Chief of Mission is appointed by the Board of Directors to serve as the liaison officer between the Organizing Committee for the Olympic or Pan American Games and the members of the United States official delegation at the site of the Games.

Because of the size of the Executive Committee and Board of Directors, the officers are the principal USOC representatives conducting the USOC's business.

Executive Committee

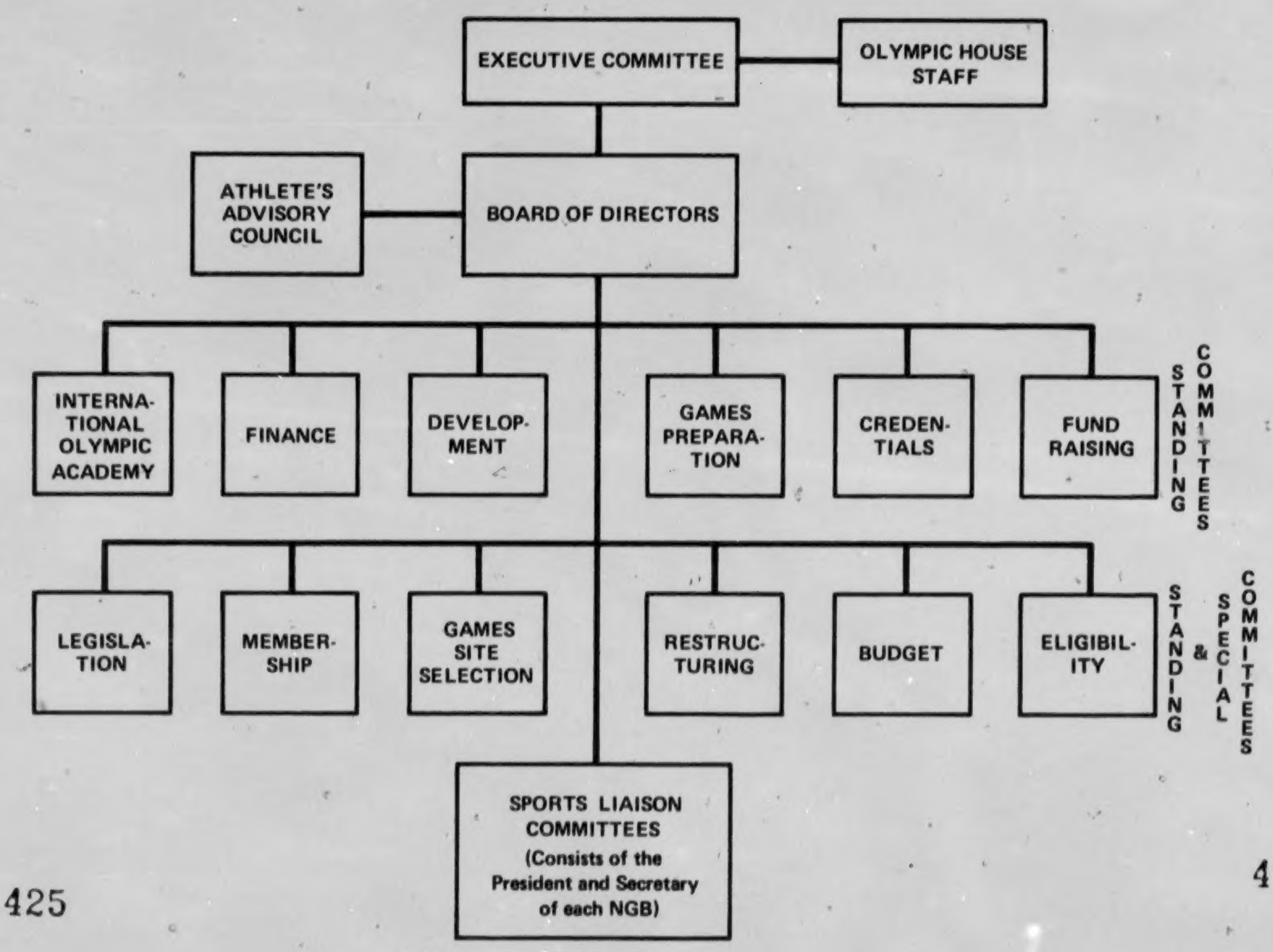
The Executive Committee is selected from the membership of the USOC, as shown in Organization Chart VI. It should be noted that the Group A members constitute a majority of the Executive Committee. IOC rules and regulations do not require this.

The Executive Committee discharges the duties of the Board of Directors between meetings of the Board. In addition, the Executive Committee meets three or four times a year.

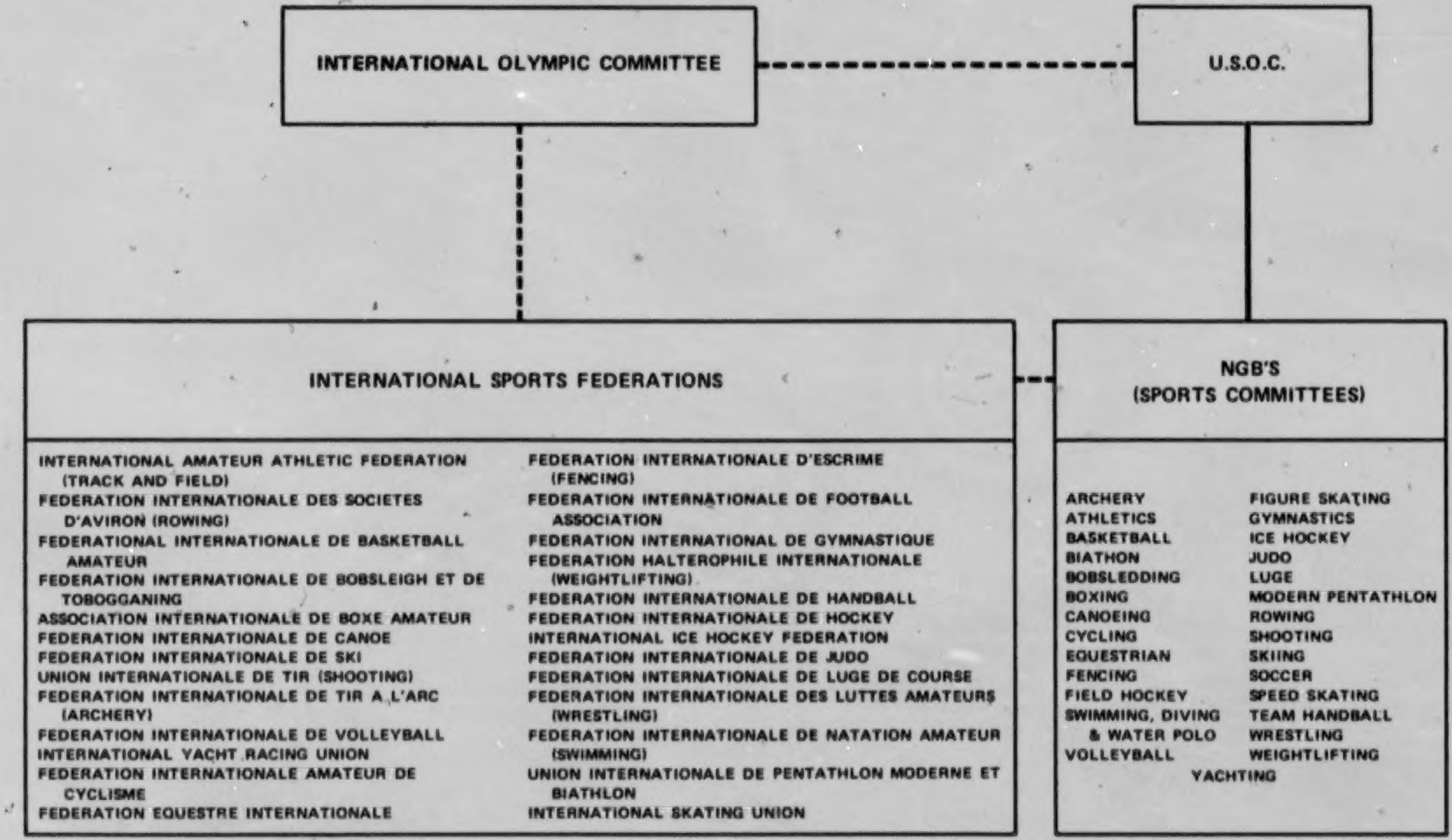
Organization Chart VI demonstrates for the first time in this chapter the affiliation of individuals. Of the 22 members of the Executive Committee when the NCAA was most recently a member, four members were AAU representatives, four were NCAA representatives and six were independent NGB representatives. The size of this representation closely approximates the voting allocation throughout the organization, which will be shown later in this chapter. The affiliations are also particularly relevant to later analysis. The vast majority of officers usually comes from these three groups as well.

ORGANIZATION CHART IV

1977-1980 FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATION OF THE USOC


EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
OLYMPIC HOUSE STAFF
ATHLETE'S ADVISORY COUNCIL
BOARD OF DIRECTORS
INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY
FINANCE
DEVELOPMENT
GAMES PREPARATION
CREDENTIALS
FUND RAISING
STANDING COMMITTEES
LEGISLATION
MEMBERSHIP
GAMES SITE SELECTION
RESTRUCTURING
BUDGET
ELIGIBILITY
STANDING & SPECIAL COMMITTEES
SPORTS LIAISON COMMITTEES (Consists of the President and Secretary of each NGB)

ORGANIZATION CHART V
RELATIONSHIP OF USOC TO INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION


INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEE
U.S.O.C.
INTERNATIONAL SPORTS FEDERATIONS
NGB'S
(SPORTS COMMITTEES)

INTERNATIONAL SPORTS FEDERATIONS

- INTERNATIONAL AMATEUR ATHLETIC FEDERATION (TRACK AND FIELD)
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DES SOCIETES D'AVIRON (ROWING)
- FEDERATIONAL INTERNATIONALE DE BASKETBALL AMATEUR
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DE BOBSLEIGH ET DE TOBOGGANING
- ASSOCIATION INTERNATIONALE DE BOXE AMATEUR
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DE CANOE
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DE SKI
- UNION INTERNATIONALE DE TIR (SHOOTING)
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DE TIR A L'ARC (ARCHERY)
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DE VOLLEYBALL
- INTERNATIONAL YACHT RACING UNION
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE AMATEUR DE CYCLISME
- FEDERATION EQUESTRE INTERNATIONALE
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE D'ESCRIME (FENCING)
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DE FOOTBALL ASSOCIATION
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONAL DE GYMNASTIQUE
- FEDERATION HALTEROPHILE INTERNATIONALE (WEIGHTLIFTING)
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DE HANDBALL
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DE HOCKEY
- INTERNATIONAL ICE HOCKEY FEDERATION
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DE JUDO
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DE LUGE DE COURSE
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DES LUTTES AMATEURS (WRESTLING)
- FEDERATION INTERNATIONALE DE NATATION AMATEUR (SWIMMING)
- UNION INTERNATIONALE DE PENTATHLON MODERNE ET BIATHLON
- INTERNATIONAL SKATING UNION

NGB'S (SPORTS COMMITTEES)

- ARCHERY
- ATHLETICS
- BASKETBALL
- BIATHON
- BOBSLEDDING
- BOXING
- CANOEING
- CYCLING
- EQUESTRIAN
- FENCING
- FIELD HOCKEY
- SWIMMING, DIVING & WATER POLO
- VOLLEYBALL
- FIGURE SKATING
- GYMNASTICS
- ICE HOCKEY
- JUDO
- LUGE
- MODERN PENTATHLON
- ROWING
- SHOOTING
- SKIING
- SOCCER
- SPEED SKATING
- TEAM HANDBALL
- WRESTLING
- WEIGHTLIFTING
- YACHTING

NOTE: ORGANIZATIONS ABOVE AND TO THE LEFT IMPOSE REQUIREMENTS ON ORGANIZATIONS BELOW OR TO THE RIGHT OF THEM.

ORGANIZATION CHART VI

REPRESENTATION ON THE USOC EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

BEFORE NCAA WITHDRAWAL

CATEGORY	VOTE/VOICE
OFFICERS	6
AAU REPRESENTATIVES	4
NCAA REPRESENTATIVES	4
INDEPENDENT NGB SUMMER SPORTS REPRESENTATIVES	4
ARMED FORCES	1
INDEPENDENT NGB WINTER SPORTS REPRESENTATIVES	2
NAIA	1
	22

BEFORE ORLANDO

CATEGORY	VOTE/VOICE
OFFICERS	6
AAU	4
INDEPENDENT NGB's SUMMER SPORTS	4
INDEPENDENT NGB's WINTER SPORTS	2
ARMED FORCES	1
NAIA	1
AT-LARGE	3
	21

AFTER ORLANDO

CATEGORY	VOICE	VOTE
OFFICERS	7	7
IOC AND PAN AM REPS.	2	2
GROUP A	30	60
GROUP B AND ARMED FORCES	6	6
CHAIRPERSON - FINANCE CHAIRPERSON - FUND RAISING	2	2
ATHLETES	3	3
	50	80

When the NCAA withdrew from the USOC, nothing was changed except for the inclusion of at-large members. The "Before Orlando" section of the chart shows that all constituencies remained constant with the exception of the at-large category. The three at-large committee members were appointed by the officers from among the NGBs, the Finance Chairman, or randomly with emphasis on choosing athletes who recently competed in either of the previous two Olympic or Pan American Games.

The chart also indicates that the IOC and Pan Am representatives were not on the Executive Committee prior to Orlando (nor, as will be later shown, did they have a vote on the Board of Directors). The omission of the IOC representatives appears to be in violation of IOC rules that require a nation's IOC representatives to be "voting members of the Executive Board" of the NOC.

After Orlando, the Executive Committee was broadened considerably in numbers and in votes. For the first time in some years, the Olympic NGBs had a majority vote on the Executive Committee, and the IOC and Pan American Sports Organization (PASO) representatives each received a vote. The latter action seems to be required by IOC rules, while the former is not required: Olympic NGBs are only required to have a majority in the total membership by the IOC rules. (Note: IOC and PASO representatives are listed as two because, for this quadrennial, one of the IOC representatives is counted as an officer of the USOC.)

Board of Directors

The Board of Directors and Executive Committee of the USOC are similarly organized. Organization Chart VII depicts the makeup of the USOC Board of Directors. The Board consists of representatives from USOC groups. These representatives are selected by individual groups that will be represented on the Board or by the Board itself (in the case of pre-Orlando). Substantial restructuring of the Board of Directors also occurred at the Orlando meeting, and Organization Chart VII also depicts the structure of the Board before and after Orlando and before the NCAA's withdrawal from the USOC.

It should also be noted that Group A members have a voting majority on the Board of Directors. As pointed out above, IOC rules and regulations do not require this.

The Board of Directors have general charge of USOC affairs and business activities and determine the policies of the USOC with respect to the USOC Constitution, Bylaws and general rules.

Major Standing Committees

The major standing committees are as follows:

- Finance,
- Development,
- Games Preparation,
- International Olympic Academy,
- Credentials, and
- Fund Raising.

The President appoints members to the above committees, subject to approval by the Board of Directors, to serve four-year terms.

Finance Committee. This Committee is responsible for the management of the invested funds of the USOC in consultation with the Board of Directors. The appointed members of this committee have usually been persons with prestigious positions in investment and banking firms. The present portfolio is managed by U. S. Trust of New York which charges a minimal fee and contributes handsomely to the United States Olympic effort.

Development Committee. As stated in the USOC Constitution, "this Committee's responsibility shall be to place greater public emphasis upon sports in which the United States has had lesser success in the Olympic Games and, in general, to stimulate, foster and promote the moral, cultural and physical education of the youth of the United States."

To achieve this responsibility, the Development Committee, "shall maintain close liaison with and work through all national sports governing bodies and with all U. S. Olympic Games Committees and shall cooperate with and assist these committees to obtain beneficial development in Olympic Sports."

Since all sports are not represented on the Development Committee, which currently has 12 members, questions have been raised as to whether each sport has sufficient recognition on this committee. The Development Committee has also been criticized for not allocating monies in accordance with its responsibilities, i.e., more monies for the so-called minor sports where the U. S. has "lesser success."

Games Preparation. As stated in the constitution, "this Committee's responsibility is to for-

ORGANIZATION CHART VII

REPRESENTATION ON THE USOC BOARD OF DIRECTORS

BEFORE NCAA WITHDRAWAL		
CATEGORY	VOICE	VOTE
OFFICERS	6	6
PAST PRESIDENT	1	1
HONORARY OFFICERS OF USOC & PRESIDENTS EMERITI	6	0
IOC DELEGATES	2	0
AAU	10	10
NCAA	10	10
USMPBA	2	2
MEMBERS OTHER THAN AAU AND USMPBA	17	17
NAIA	4	4
ARMED FORCES	4	4
GROUP B MEMBERS	4	4
TWO WOMEN AT-LARGE	2	2
THREE AT-LARGE	3	3
	71	63

BEFORE ORLANDO		
CATEGORY	VOICE	VOTE
OFFICERS	7	7
HONORARY OFFICERS & PRESIDENTS EMERITI	6	0
IOC REPS.	2	0
AAU	10	10
USMPBA	2	2
"INDEPENDENTS"	17	17
NAIA	4	4
ARMED FORCES	4	4
GROUP B	4	4
AT-LARGE	1	1
CHAIRPERSON - FINANCE	1	1
AT-LARGE	7	7
	65	67

AFTER ORLANDO		
CATEGORY	VOICE	VOTE
OFFICERS	7	7
HONORARY OFFICERS & PRESIDENTS EMERITI	7	0
IOC AND PAN AM REPS.	2	2
GROUP A	30	60
GROUP B AND ARMED FORCES	20	20
GROUP C	2	2
REGIONAL FUND RAISING DIRECTORS	4	4
CHAIRPERSON - FINANCE CHAIRPERSON - FUND RAISING	2	2
ATHLETES	7	7
	81	104

mulate and recommend to the Board of Directors administrative policies for the Sport Committees and for the guidance of the official U. S. delegation at the Olympic and Pan American Games. The Chairman of the Committee evaluates the effectiveness of the Sport Committees and reports thereon to the Board of Directors."

The Games Preparation Committee is responsible for overseeing all matters concerning the selection and participation of U. S. athletes and team officials by the sports committees in the Olympic and Pan American Games and evaluation of all sports committees. For example, this committee prepares a personal chart indicating the make-up of the official delegation to the Games and ensures that it meets IOC requirements. The committee also coordinates all final tryouts for the Games, making recommendations with respect to the site, program, sponsorship, TV and radio coverage and financial arrangements.

International Olympic Academy Committee. The Committee's responsibility is to formulate and recommend to the Board policies and plans for the participation of the United States in the program of the International Olympic Academy with headquarters at Olympia, Greece.

In addition, the Committee is responsible for developing and implementing, with the approval of the Board, those activities under the auspices of the USOC which are designed to promote the spirit of the Olympics and to encourage widespread participation of citizens of the United States in the Olympic movement.

Credentials Committee. No delegate or alternate is eligible to represent his organization at any meeting unless he is certified to that effect by the Committee on Credentials or admitted to the meeting by the affirmative vote of a majority of the duly accredited USOC membership present at such meeting. A decision of the Committee on Credentials denying voting rights to an individual member at any meeting may be reversed by a vote of a majority of the duly accredited USOC membership at such meeting.

Fund-Raising Committee. The Fund-Raising Committee is a new committee. Roles and responsibilities have not yet been completely detailed. The members of this committee are the only members of the USOC that may solicit funds on behalf of the USOC. The membership of the Committee is composed of the Chairman and each State Olympic Chairman (members of Group D). Influential and prominent persons from each state are usually selected to be State Chairmen. The primary purpose is to coordinate and promote fund-raising activities within their respective states.

Standing and Special Committees. In addition to the above mentioned committees, the USOC Constitution authorizes the President "with the approval of the Board of Directors, to appoint a Committee on Legislation, a Committee on Membership, a Committee on Eligibility, a Committee on Fund Raising, a Committee on Apparel, Supplies and Equipment, a Committee on Food and Housing, a Committee on Transportation, a Committee on Medical and Training Services, a Games Site Selection Committee, and such other standing or special committees as may be deemed necessary, and to prescribe the respective duties and privileges of such committees."

The following standing committees were formulated during the 1973-76 Quadrennial:

- Legislation,
- Games Site Selection,
- Budget,
- Membership,
- Restructuring, and
- Eligibility.

The status, roles and responsibilities of these committees are discussed in the following sections.

Legislation. The Committee on Legislation is charged with the "duty of reviewing all proposals for amendment to the constitution, bylaws or general rules of the USOC, and of making a report thereon, with recommendations both as to substance and as to form, to the Board of Directors and to the USOC." The Counselor of the USOC is member of this committee.

Membership. The Committee on Membership is responsible for receiving and investigating all applications for membership or transfer of membership in the USOC, and reporting thereon, with recommendations for approval or rejection, to the Board of Directors and to the USOC. The Secretary of the USOC is a member of this Committee.

Games Site Selection. This Committee has been formed to assist communities which are interested in hosting Winter or Summer Olympic Games. The Committee helps communities prepare their presentation to the IOC. For example, the Winter Games section received proposals for the 1980 Games and determined that the Lake Placid community would be a good candidate to submit to the IOC for approval. Once the IOC selected Lake Placid as the site of the 1980 Winter Games, a Lake Placid Organizing Committee was formed and the responsibilities of the Games Site Selection Committee ceased.

Restructuring. The Committee on Restructuring was formed in the 1973-76 Quadrennial to investigate the allocation of voting power in the USOC on the Executive Committee, the Board of Directors, and within the organization as a whole. This Committee in conjunction with the Legislation Committee made recommendations at the Orlando meeting for several changes in the allocation of votes that were ultimately accepted by the general membership of the USOC.

Eligibility. This Committee was formed for the 1973-76 Quadrennial to oversee compliance by the several Sport Committees, and by the individual athletes selected to represent the United States at the Olympic or Pan American Games, with the international rules of amateurism as defined by the IOC and PASO.

Due to constitutional changes made at Orlando, this committee is not currently functioning. The Committee for Games Preparation has assumed some of the Eligibility Committee's functions, and the rest are now taken care of through the Athlete's Bill of Rights.

Budget. This Committee reviews the budget submitted by the Executive Director of the USOC and makes recommendations to the USOC Board of Directors with regard to approval or disapproval of items contained therein.

Sports Committees. After 1976, *only* members of the NGB for each sport will serve on the sport committees. Any other organizations or individuals desiring representation on a sport committee will have to do so through the NGB for that sport. Constitutional provisions have been made to ensure that the membership of the NGB is open.

According to the constitution, the primary authorities and responsibilities of each Sport Liaison Committee are:

> . . . selecting and nominating athletes and team officials in its sport for final appointment by the Board of Directors to the United States Olympic or Pan American teams. The program of tryouts or other competitions for the selection of athletes and the plan or method of selecting managers, coaches, and other team officials, or any material modifications thereof, are subject to approval of the Board. All business arrangements for Olympic tryouts or other Olympic events shall be approved in advance by the Officers and shall be subject to confirmation by the Board of Directors or its Executive Committee.

The USOC feels that this arrangement for the Sports Committees will eliminate some of the past criticisms by forcing all organizations to work together through the NGB, rather than independently. In addition, the USOC believes it to be more efficient to have one organization, the NGB, running the sport rather than having an Olympic Sports Committee, which is composed differently and apart from the NGB, running the sport for the Olympics.

The fact that the AAU is the NGB for eight sports has caused much concern. Only one other organization holds more than one franchise. This is the U. S. Modern Pentathlon and Biathlon Association which holds the international franchises for pentathlon and biathlon, both of which are governed by one international federation. In addition, two of the AAU sports, aquatics and athletics (track and field), were accorded double representation on the Executive Committee and Board of Directors at the Orlando meeting.

Many of the "independent" NGBs and the NCAA object to this perceived domination by the AAU. Some officials of the USOC hope that the changes instituted at Orlando will lead to all NGBs becoming independent of umbrella organizations such as the AAU and self-sustaining organizations in their own right. In this case, the AAU would not be discontinued; rather it would become a broad-based service organization assisting sports on the national and local level. To achieve this end, the USOC would like to ensure that each NGB is administered by a full-time paid director. However, no provisions have been made to ensure that these changes will come about.

Athletes' Advisory Council

The constitution provides for the establishment of an Athletes' Advisory Council (AAC), composed of those athletes serving as members of the Board of Directors and at least one athlete from each sport in which the United States is represented at the Olympic and Pan American Games. The AAC was formed to broaden communication between the USOC and currently active athletes and to serve as a source of opinion and advice to the Board of Directors with regard to both current and contemplated policies of the USOC.

The current members of the Council were selected by the USOC President and Board of Directors at the beginning of the 1973-76 Quadrennial. The Council did not exist prior to that quadrennial and this method of selection will not be used for the 1977-80 Quadrennial. Each sport will poll its participating athletes to select the representative to the AAC.

The concept of the AAC has been generally well-received. However, problems have arisen in the somewhat ambiguously defined area of communication with the Board of Directors. The AAC is not convinced that its advice and opinion is being given appropriate consideration by the Board of Directors. There have been some misunderstandings between the Board of Directors and the athletes over the purpose of the AAC. Some USOC Directors have indicated to the athletes that as their council matures and as they become more familiar with the inner working of the USOC and the problems thereof, their opinions will be accorded increasing respect.

OPERATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE USOC

This section attempts to describe some of the more important features of USOC operations. Areas appearing to cause the most concern and discussed in the following sections are:

- Relationships with other organizations,
- Mechanisms for arbitration,
- Financing,
- Voting structure, and
- Federal intervention.

Relationships With Other Organizations

International

The relationships between the USOC, IOC, and ISFs have been described. There has been some concern over the influence of the United States in these international organizations.

No country is permitted to have more than two representatives of the IOC and therefore no one country can dominate the IOC. The United States, by virtue of its support of the Olympic movement and its dominance in world affairs, does receive some additional informal influence. To illustrate this, representatives of the USOC were invited to the meeting of the IOC in Barcelona (October 1976) to present alternatives for dealing with subsequent political issues such as those which marred the 1976 Games.

In the case of the ISFs, it has been noted that during the last four years only one federation has been located in the United States and administered by a U. S. citizen. The reasons behind this appear to be historical in that as originally conceived, the ISFs were mainly useful to the European countries who participated more frequently in international competitions than did the U. S. It is only in the past 20 years that U. S. athletes have participated in many more international competitions. This is gradually changing now that the value of increased international competition is more widely accepted. As these changes occur, U. S. participation in ISFs may increase.

Domestic

The USOC has been a battleground for AAU-NCAA exchanges. It has already been pointed out how each of these groups has had a strong voice in Olympic Committee affairs. In fact, until the late 1960s, the Presidency of the USOC shifted back and forth between the two groups. Avery Brundage, an AAU man, was President from 1932 to 1953 when he assumed the Presidency of the IOC. From 1953 until 1965, Kenneth "Tug" Wilson, an NCAA man, assumed the Presidency. Douglas Roby, an AAU man, became President in 1965 when it was no longer possible for a USOC President to succeed himself. During this period, Frank Orth of the National Rifle Association and Phil Krumm of the U. S. International Skating Association organized the "independents." This was the first time that the independent national governing bodies became a viable and unified force as a counter to the strength of the AAU or NCAA. As will be later shown, the independents, when they banded together, presented a voting strength in excess of either the AAU or NCAA. In 1969, this resulted in the election of Frank Orth. The NCAA was upset with this because it was their turn to hold the Presidency after Roby. Orth died in office (1970) and Clifford Buck of the AAU was elected, although Krumm felt he should succeed Orth to further represent the "independents" during the term of Orth. However, the NCAA supported the election of Buck, and he was elected.

Phil Krumm was elected to succeed Buck in 1973. It was clearly the NCAA's turn to hold the Presidency. But the NCAA had withdrawn, and its candidate, Bob Kane, Dean of Athletics at Cornell University (N.Y.), had no constituency. He lost narrowly, just the same. Allegations have been made that Krumm "made a deal" with the AAU to support continuation of their NGB control of their sports, in return for the vote for him. Krumm denied such an allegation in testimony before this Commission and, as will be discussed later, he did not oppose a change in the basketball NGB from the AAU to another body during his Presidency.

The USOC has for the most part enjoyed a friendly relationship with the AAU. Relationships with the NCAA have been another story, however. The NCAA has criticized some of its policies both before and since its withdrawal. The USOC has indicated that good relationships still exist with the regional segments of the NCAA, such as the Eastern Collegiate Athletic Association (ECAC). However, it is true that organizational relationships within the USOC membership structure potentially lend themselves to "block voting" on major issues and key organizational appointments.

Mechanisms for Arbitration

As mentioned previously, two mechanisms for arbitrating disputes were established at the Orlando meeting:

- The Athlete's Bill of Rights, and
- Franchise challenge provisions for Group A membership.

Each of these is discussed in the following sections.

Athlete's Bill of Rights. According to the USOC Constitution, the Bill of Rights for Athletes provides for compulsory arbitration by the American Arbitration Association (AAA) of all disputes between an athlete and "any organization that is directly or indirectly affiliated with the USOC," preventing him from attempting to qualify for any international competition, including the Pan American Games and Olympic Games. Under such arbitration procedures, the athlete can present his case to the American Arbitration Association for immediate review.

The Bill of Rights became effective immediately after the 1974 Orlando meeting and has since been used in nine or ten cases. Four of the cases were arbitrated by the AAA. According to the USOC, the outcome of these cases has been generally satisfactory.

The Bill of Rights has been criticized for the inclusion of the "notwithstanding" clause. The clause reads as follows:

> "Notwithstanding these provisions, the corporation shall honor the decision of any member of the corporation or of any university, college, high school, or other educational institution which an individual is attending at the time he is selected to participate or attempts to qualify to participate, to deny him such right, provided that, after an appropriate hearing conducted by such member or by the educational institution at a reasonable time prior to such participation, it is determined that such activity would violate applicable amateur athletic rules or would unreasonably interfere with the individual's academic or athletic interests—or, in the case of a coach, manager or administrator, with his employment interests—at the individual's institution."

Critics contend that this clause negates the fundamental purpose of the Bill of Rights by making it possible for an organization to infringe upon the right of the athlete to compete. Major objections have come from the athletes. Some USOC officials have indicated that they too are unhappy with the "notwithstanding" clause and have noted that it will be discussed further at the USOC's upcoming meeting.

The NCAA has been a severe critic of previous versions of the Athlete's Bill of Rights and concluded in their analysis of the 1974 Orlando meeting that the package agreed upon was still without real content for the athlete. The NCAA has criticized the Athlete's Bill of Rights primarily in two areas. First, the conditions of the Bill apply only to *eligible* athletes, which when coupled with the right of a Group A member to determine violations of amateur rules, leaves the athlete, at least according to the NCAA, no recourse in regard to unreasonable eligibility requirements imposed by Group A members or international federations. Secondly, the NCAA contends that the arbitration process is binding only on the athlete, not on the involved organizations. It should be noted that the latter position is not widely shared by other sports organizations or amateur athletes.

Franchise Challenge Provisions. The right of the incumbent NGB to hold the franchise has been challenged in several sports in recent years. In some cases, the challenger has protested that the incumbent NGB has not given it appropriate representation. For example, the NCAA felt that it had inadequate representation within the NGB for basketball when the AAU held the franchise.

Franchise challenge provisions for Group A membership were also added to the constitution at the Orlando meeting. These provisions provide procedures for settling franchise challenge disputes through arbitration by the AAA. Group A membership is only for NGBs, so a successful application for Group A membership should result in an organization receiving the franchise and attaining membership in the international federation for the sport concerned. It is not clear at this time exactly how the new procedure will work, since no organization has challenged an incumbent NGB through the USOC arbitration provisions. Previously, organizations wishing to become NGBs found the USOC usually unwilling to replace the incumbent NGB. Therefore, some organizations, after being rebuffed by the USOC, appealed to the international federation with mixed results.

In establishing the franchise challenge procedures, the USOC also developed criteria under which a Group A member (NGB) must operate to successfully resist challenges from other organizations. The criteria are that "the Claimant must establish by a preponderance of evidence that it provides at the time of arbitration and in comparison with the governing body then recognized by the USOC (if any), more comprehensive and effective national competition (for individuals or teams at all levels of athletic activity) in the Olympic sport for which it claims recognition as the governing body, so that such competition will result in a higher quality of United States athletes in all international amateur athletic competition for such sport, and that the Claimant complies in every respect with the requirements for election to Group A as set forth

Article III, Section 3 further states that: "To be recognized by the USOC as a national sports governing body, an organization shall:

> (a) Open its membership, directly or by affiliation, to all amateur athletes and athletic organizations that are active in the sport;
>
> (b) Demonstrate its ability to administer its sport adequately in both its national and international aspects at various relevant levels of sports proficiency, and in particular to comply with all applicable international requirements (written and uniformly applied to all nations) relating to recognition as the governing body for that sport;
>
> (c) Provide equal opportunity, without regard to race, creed, color, religion, or sex for participation in its sport to all individuals who are eligible under applicable international and reasonable national amateur athletic rules and regulations and apply such rules and regulations concerning athletic competition without discrimination to all such individuals;
>
> (d) Be governed by a board whose members are selected without regard to race, creed, color, religion, or sex, and whose voting membership on a current basis includes (1) a reasonable proportion of individuals who are actively engaged in amateur athletic competition in the United States as competitors in the sport concerned, or who have represented the United States in international amateur competition in that sport within the two most recent Olympic periods, and (2) provision for a reasonable proportion of representatives of other national amateur organizations, if any, which conduct regular national competition in its sport at various relevant levels of proficiency during the current Olympic period if the sport is actually on the program of the forthcoming Olympic Games, and which are capable of holding an annual championship at a level of proficiency appropriate to the selection of athletes to represent the United States in international competition, and in addition are capable of conducting international athletic competition in that sport."

These criteria attempt to ensure that the most effective and "open" organization will be chosen for the sport concerned. Problems envisioned by critics arise regarding implementation of the criteria. The constitution provides that the challenged (or incumbent) organization shall have "a reasonable period" in which to comply with the above criteria. This, of course, leaves the question of what constitutes a reasonable time period wide open to debate. The NCAA maintains that the criteria are "curiously vague and vapid . . . and appear to be drawn carefully to maintain the *status quo.*"

As can be seen already from examination of their membership, Executive Committee and Board of Directors, there are historically three power blocks within the USOC. While this will be further demonstrated upon examination of voting allocations, the three power blocks are AAU, NCAA and the "independents."

The USOC has the authority to certify to the international franchise holder who the national governing body should be in many sports. The chapter on U. S. Relationships with the International Sports Community in Vol. II explains that many international federations state this in their rules and many more would accept NOC certification.

The USOC has treated NGB challenges in a number of ways. The USGF, now the governing body for gymnastics, received no assistance from the USOC in obtaining the franchise in 1970 from the international federation (FIG) in the sport (see chapter on Franchise Disputes in Vol. I). The USOC did not intervene in this matter. FIG approved the franchise award on the basis that there was no supreme authority in the U. S. responsible for determining who should be the governing body.

The USOC's handling of the Wrestling dispute was quite different (see chapter on Wrestling in Vol. II). In this case, the USOC took an active role. The AAU had been suspended in 1970 as the Wrestling NGB and was reinstated in 1972 by a vote of the USOC Board of Directors. The President of the USOC was required to write a letter to the international federation (FILA) certifying the AAU as the NGB.

Finally, in 1972, the AAU was suspended as the NGB for basketball. Unsuccessful deliberations continued between the NCAA backed ABAUSA and the AAU until early 1974 (see chapter on Basketball in Vol. II and also chapter on Franchise Disputes in Vol. I), when FIBA (the international federation for the sport) asked the USOC Games Committee to take the franchise so that the U. S. would be able to field a team in the World Amateur Basketball Championships in July, 1974. Despite a suit against the USOC by ABAUSA and its precursor, BFUSA, the USOC ignored the Greenbrier amendment, which was still in effect. FIBA subsequently expelled the AAU and gave the franchise to ABAUSA, which was awarded Group A status at Orlando. The USOC did nothing apparently to prevent this franchise change and, in fact, covertly supported it despite the NCAA-backed suit against the USOC.

Financing

Sources of Revenue. The primary sources of revenue for the USOC are from contributions from the general public and from corporations. Other sources of revenue are realized from investments, membership dues, and student life insurance programs. An approximate breakdown of the percentage of income from each of these areas is as follows:

–Corporate agreements	43%
–Public contributions	45%
–Investment portfolio Membership dues Student life insurance	12%

In recent years funds derived from corporate agreements with business and industrial enterprises have enabled the USOC to develop a relatively steady source of income that is utilized to pay monthly operations costs incurred by Olympic House, as well as help to defray the continuing costs of Olympic Games participation. In conjunction with the on-going corporate agreements activity, designated fund-raising chairmen in each state and the District of Columbia conduct a continual fund-raising effort throughout the quadrennial period. Increased emphasis is also being placed on public membership in the Olympic Society which collects annual dues. Members receive an Olympic magazine periodically. The goal is to increase the current membership from approximately 62,000 to 250,000 over the next quadrennial.

Another source of revenue is the USOC investment portfolio. The portfolio includes three primary funds:

- *Trophy fund*–This fund is a legacy from a will and currently consists of $8,000 that has been invested in Treasury bonds. No expenditures have been made from this fund because of certain restrictions placed on the award of the funds. Funds are reinvested in new Treasury bonds when the existing bonds are due. Additional bonds are purchased when income from existing bonds is sufficient.
- *General fund*–This is estimated at $3.2 million and is used for general overhead expenses. Actual revenues in this fund will vary from time to time.
- *Reserve funds*–This fund is used to pay monthly retirement pensions for USOC retired staff (approximately four persons at present).

Though the revenue from the investment portfolio is relatively small in comparison to quadrennial operating costs, one of the major uses of the portfolio is to provide part of the collateral necessary for financial loans the USOC must undertake to defray Olympic and Pan American Games expenses. An illustration of the use of the portfolio as collateral is its present use in backing a loan held by the Lake Placid Organizing Committee to develop the 1980 Winter Olympic site.

Overall goals with respect to revenues are $12.6 million for the current 1973-1976 quadrennial and $20 million for the upcoming quadrennial. Annual revenues for the past eight years are presented on the following page.

Fund-raising Mechanisms. Since 1968, fund raising has been conducted on an annual basis. According to the fund-raising director, all approved methods of fund raising are utilized.

The following methods are used to stimulate contributions from the general public:

- Televising public service announcements,
- Letters soliciting contributions,
- Posters–an affiliation with an artist has been established to develop Olympic posters,
- Medallion–produced by the Franklin Mint,
- Appeals by State Olympic Chairmen–State Olympic Chairmen may raise monies by any approved fund-raising method. The approaches used vary from chairman to chairman depending on what they feel comfortable doing and are successful within their respective states. The USOC assists them by providing appropriate materials and necessary financial support for sponsoring a wide variety of fund-raising events such as golf tournaments, dinners, dances, etc.

The USOC is aided in its fund-raising efforts through a contract with a professional marketing company. This affiliation was begun in 1948 and the marketing company's responsibilities have included: corporate contacts, public service announcements, selling of advertising space, promotion, publications and production of the Olympic Book.

In the area of corporate agreements the USOC solicits contributions from business and industrial corporations. Corporations agree to contribute monies based on the sale of items resulting from advertising that makes reference to the Olympics and the U. S. Olympic team. For example, the corporation may agree to give the USOC ten cents for every item sold during a certain period. In return the corporation may refer to the USOC or Olympic team in its advertisements of that item during that period. The USOC now always asks for guarantee of a given amount of money no matter how few items are sold. Any additional items sold over and above the guarantee will also provide income to the USOC. The USOC is now encouraging corporate agreements over longer time periods with guaranteed monthly payments to help defray operating cost in non-Olympic years.

The USOC organized State Olympic Committees for the purpose of fund raising during the last quadrennial. While this step is viewed by all as positive, its implementation is still in the beginning stages. State fund-raising Chairmen have indicated to the Commission that there is no planning or coordination, and they are basically unsupervised.

The USOC is currently reassessing its fund-raising efforts. A consulting company has been hired to evaluate current efforts and determine how the USOC can most effectively organize and conduct its fund-raising activities. The costs of fund-raising have remained at approximately the same level for the past two quadrennials. For the 1968-72 Quadrennial, the costs were 25.6% of the total USOC expenses and for the 1973-76, they are 24.03% as of March 31, 1976.

Methods of Allocation. The budget for the USOC is allocated to the following five areas:

- Administrative expenses including those connected with the operation of committees and the Athlete's Advisory Council – 11.08%
- Fund-raising expenses – 24.03%
- Games expenses – 30.87%
- Preparation for games expenses – 13.84%
- Development expenses – 20.15%

The order of priority in allocating those monies is essentially the same as the order of the above list. That is, after fixed costs are paid, the highest priority is extended to monies for sending the largest team possible to the Olympics and the Pan American Games. The budget is always constructed on the assumption that the U. S. will send the maximum number of participants allowed in every sport. If additional monies are available they are spent on games preparation and trials. Monies that are left after these expenses are allocated for sports development.

At the end of the 1969-1972 Quadrennial period changes were made in the accounting procedures for calculating administrative costs. These changes are incorporated into the figures shown in right-hand column. Previously, all salaries and other expenses associated with the Olympic House were included in administrative costs. Some of these costs are now distributed among the appropriate sports categories.

Primary Recipients of Monies

The financial summary of the USOC displayed in the table depicts the primary recipients of USOC funds. To clarify the actual recipients of USOC monies on a sport-by-sport basis it is necessary to further explore the allocation methodology utilized by the Development Committee. This Committee is responsible for the disbursement of funds for team preparation, trials, committee expenses and development.

A breakdown of the Development Committee's funds expended for the last two quadrennials is presented below. Figures may differ for the 1973-1976 Quadrennial as the quadrennial is not complete until December 31, 1976.

	1969-72	*1973-76 (est)*
Development	$ 855,344	$1,854,997
Team Preparation	733,967	810,415
Committee Expenses	26,778	46,829
Trials	302,404	693,814
Total	$1,958,493	$3,406,055

SOURCE: USOC Summary Statement, March 31, 1976.

Each sport requests development and preparation monies from the Development Committee. As would be expected, requests sometimes exceed the amount available. The table shown below summarizes by category, the monies requested from the USOC, the distribution of the budget and actual expenditures for the 1976 Quadrennial. Monies allocated for development amount to 42 percent of the total requested.

Actual expenditures for the 1976 Quadrennial have increased 74% over the total expenditures for the 1972 Quadrennial. A significant portion of this increase is expenditures for team development, which increased 117 percent – $855,344 in 1972 to $1,854,997 in 1976.

United States Olympic Committee
Summary Statements of Expenses
1972 Quadrennial and Years 1973, 1974 and 1975
Actual and Proposed Budget for 1976

	1972 Quadrennial Actual		*1973 Actual*		*1974 Actual*		*1975 Actual*		*1976 Estimated*		*1976 Quadrennial Estimated*	
	Amounts	*Percentage*	*Amounts*	*Percentage*	*Amounts*	*Percentage*	*Amounts*	*Percentage*	*Amounts*	*Percentage*	*Amounts*	*Percentage*
Expenses:												
Fund-Raising	$1,960,601.42	25.60	$ 337,336.03	26.64	$ 550,241.45	30.88	$1,111,026.61	30.86	$ 928,443.50	15.53	$ 2,927,047.59	23.18
Administrative	$1,025,934.32	13.39	$ 305,124.99	24.09	$ 318,046.16	17.85	$ 315,950.99	8.78	$ 317,425.00	5.31	$ 1,256,547.14	9.95
Sports:												
Development	$1,027,754.93	13.42	$ 504,014.23	39.80	$ 791,232.56	44.41	$ 729,661.12	20.27	$ 429,791.34	7.19	$ 2,454,750.25	19.44
Committees	32,135.42	.42	15,293.31	1.21	15,839.29	.89	12,097.10	.34	18,504.43	.31	61,734.13	.49
Trials	21,424.58	.28	–	–	–	–	310,688.70	8.63	447,248.34	7.48	757,937.04	6.00
Pan-American	713,179.82	9.70	12,331.36	.97	2,380.47	.13	1,278,751.03	35.52	7,681.08	.13	1,301,143.94	10.31
Winter Oly.	554,847.87	7.25	4,654.49	.37	–	–	174,080.09	4.84	595,283.70	9.96	774,018.28	6.13
Summer Oly.	1,583,529.99	20.68	22,970.19	1.82	39,410.00	1.09	104,743.11	2.91	1,537,612.56	25.72	1,684,735.86	13.34
Pre-Trails Train	341,933.61	4.46	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Team Prepara	930,041.88	12.14	45,215.00	3.57	86,612.53	4.86	340,491.90	9.45	455,280.05	7.62	927,599.48	7.35
	$5,234,848.10	68.35	$ 604,478,58	47.74	$ 915,565.85	51.38	$2,950,513.05	81.96	$3,491,401.50	58.41	$ 7,961,958.98	63.06
Prior Quad. Ex	$ 0	0	$ 34,413.18	2.72	$ 0	0	$ 0	0	$ 0	0	$ 34,433.18	.28
Total Exepnses	$8,221,383.84	107.34	$1,281,372.78	101.19	$1,783,853.46	100.11	$4,377,490.65	121.80	$4,737,270.00	79.25	$12,179,986.89	96.47
Excess Receipts Or (Expenses)	$ (562,229.39)	(7.34)	$ (15,084,31)	(1.19)	$ (2,025.20)	(.11)	$ (777,577.57)	(21.60)	$1,240,241.00	20.75	$ 445,553.92	3.53

The Administrative Expenses, as stated above, are after the following distributions:
(a) Salaries distributed departmentally.
(b) Balances of Administrative Expenses were distributed percentage wise, based on the 1972 Quadrennial figures.

United States Olympic Committee
Summary Statements of Receipts
1972 Quadrennial and Years 1973, 1974 and 1975
Actual and Proposed Budget for 1976

	1972 Quadrennial Actual		*1973 Actual*		*1974 Actual*		*1975 Actual*		*1976 Estimated*		*1976 Quadrennial Estimated*	
	Amounts	*Percentage*	*Amounts*	*Percentage*	*Amounts*	*Percentage*	*Amounts*	*Percentage*	*Amounts*	*Percentage*	*Amounts*	*Percentage*
Receipts:												
Contributions	$5,727,968.91	74.79	$1,032,703.00	81.55	$1,459,883.05	81.93	$2,802,496.80	77.85	$4,587,055.00	76.74	$ 9,882,137.94	78.27
In Kind	427,391.59	5.58	–	–	–	–	340,834.10	9.47	510,000.00	8.53	850,834.10	6.74
Other Receipts	1,503,793.95	19.63	233,585.38	18.45	321,945.21	18.07	456,582.18	12.68	880,456.00	14.73	1,892,568.77	14.99
Total Receipts	$7,659,154.45	100.00	$1,266,288.47	100.00	$1,781,828.26	100.00	$3,599,913.08	100.00	$5,977,511.00	100.00	$12,625,540.81	100.00

Area	*Requested* *($)*	*Allocated* *($)*	*Actual(1)* *($)*
Development	$4,838,098	$2,015,626	$1,854,997
Team Preparation	2,418,376	911,600	810,415
Committee Expense	77,387	49,957	46,829
Trial	1,599,604	857,388	693,814
Total	$3,935,465	$3,834,783	$3,406,055

NOTE: (1) Actual expenditures for period ending 12-31-76 are estimates and subject to change.

SOURCE: USOC Summary Statements of Receipts and Expense, Years 1973, 1974, 1975, Actual and Proposed Budget for 1976.

Sports Committee Summary, 1973-1976.

In order to allocate these funds, criteria have been established for award of development monies. The criteria and weights for these criteria are listed below:

Medal Production	15%
World Rank	27%
Participation	20%
National Federation	13%
Team Size	10%
Public Interest	15%
Total	100%

Rankings based on these criteria and alternative rankings based upon budget allocations are shown on the following page. The committee's rankings caused considerable concern due to the fact that the major or popular sports received the highest rankings. This appears to be in conflict with the responsibilities stated in the USOC constitution to place greater emphasis on those sports where the U. S. has had lesser success in the Olympics.

Criteria were also developed for award of monies for team preparation and trials based on the number of athletes involved. A fixed amount was allocated for each athlete. If a particular sport did not request the full amount allocated, only the amount requested was funded.

The next table summarizes total monies awarded to each sport and how the allocation is related to team size. Team size is, of course, different than the "per athlete" basis.

As stated above, the USOC Constitution mandates that greater emphasis be placed on those sports where the U. S. has had lesser success in the Olympics.

In examining the criteria used to allocate monies, it is not possible that a lesser known sport such as biathlon can receive more funds than a popular sport, such as swimming. Below, is an analysis of this fact measured against the criteria:

Medal Production. This criteria measures the historical performance of medal winning in each sport. As described in the Swimming and Biathlon chapters, the U. S. has always done well in swimming and rarely performs well in biathlon. Swimming obviously obtains a better ranking by this criterion, which counts 15% in developing the overall ranking.

World Rank. Similar conclusions are reached in examining this criterion against the same two sports. The sport reports demonstrate that the U. S. is number one in swimming and far down the list in Biathlon. Swimming obviously obtains a better ranking, which counts 27% in developing the overall ranking.

Participation. Again, U. S. swimmers far outnumber biathletes as pointed out in the sport reports. Swimming again obtains a better ranking which counts 20% in developing the overall ranking.

National Federation. This ranking is derived by measuring each governing body against the others in terms of number of national competitions conducted, number of world championships to which the U. S. sends teams, number of coaching and training clinics held and by how much each NGB spends to manage the sport, etc. Again, biathlon cannot possibly compete with swimming to obtain a better ranking. This criterion counts 13% in developing the overall ranking.

Team Size. This criterion is dictated by the international federation in the sport. Some lesser known sports (such as rowing) have large teams; well known sports (such as basketball) have small teams. Here a lesser known sport has a chance to outrank a well-known sport but the team size is set by forces over which the U. S. team has no control. This criterion counts 10% of the whole. A Biathlon team is smaller than a swimming team.

Public Interest. Many Americans do not even know what biathlon is. Swimming is, of course, well known and the public is interested in it. This criterion counts 15% in developing the overall ranking.

The USOC defends this overall ranking which appears to be biased in favor of the more popular and successful sports by arguing that development monies allocated per athlete on each team is greater for the minor sports. Here biathlon receives $5,708 per Olympic team athlete and is ranked seventh while swimming receives $2,863

Allocation of USOC Development Monies Per Olympic Team Member (1973-1976)

Rankings	*Sport*	*Team Size*[1]	*Total Development Allocation Per Team Member*	*Ranking of Development Monies Per Team Member*
1	Athletics (M)	70	3,093	20
2	Swimming	51	2,863	22
3	Yachting	19	–	33
4	Athletics (W)	40	2,340	26
5	Wrestling	20	6,325	4
6	Basketball (M)	12	3,375	16
7	Shooting	14	357	32
8	Skiing	40	2,275	27
9	Diving	12	7,208	2
10	Ice Hockey	18	3,444	15
11	Figure Skating	12	5,417	8
12	Rowing (M)	32	3,178	19
13	Equestrian	13	3,962	13
14	Speed Skating	18	3,764	14
15	Boxing	11	4,904	10
16	Gymnastics (W)	7	7,207	3
17	Gymnastics (M)	7	6,321	5
18	Soccer Football	18	3,250	18
19	Water Polo	11	4,945	9
20	Fencing	20	2,160	28
21	Archery	6	4,567	11
22	Modern Pentathlon	4	10,250	1
23	Judo	6	4,450	12
24	Weight Lifting	9	5,944	6
25	Volleyball (M)	12	2,542	23
26	Volleyball (W)	12	2,542	24
27	Cycling	18	2,433	25
28	Canoe & Kayak	17	3,265	17
29	Team Handball	16	2,975	21
30	Bob Sled	14	1,614	30
31	Biathlon	6	5,708	7
32	Field Hockey	16	1,075	31
33	Luge	11	1,973	29
34	Baseball[2]	–		
35	Baseball (W)[2]	–		
36	Rowing (W)[2]	–		
37	Synchronized Swimming[2]	–		

[1] Team size based upon the Olympic Team size.

[2] No teams in the Olympics.

SOURCE: U. S. Olympic Sports Budget Development policy statement
USOC Financial Report.

per Olympic team athlete and is ranked twenty-second.

The USOC is currently administering the payment of monies to athletes who must be absent from employment without pay to participate in the Games. The USOC first encourages employers to cover these "broken-time" costs for the appropriate period of time. If an employer does not wish to participate, the USOC underwrites the cost of an athlete's time lost from work. In administering this program the USOC has become aware of the possibility that NCAA athletes who hold athletic scholarships may be declared ineligible by the NCAA if they accept broken-time payments. The USOC has informed those athletes affected and explained the potential consequences they may face should they avail themselves of broken-time payment from the USOC.

The Development Committee came into being in the 1953-1956 Quadrennial period with a budget of approximately $180,000. The monies available for development have increased substantially since then. The current quadrennial's budget for sports development, team preparation and trials will be approximately $3.8 million. The Executive Director of the USOC would like to see the budget increased to approximately

Allocation of USOC Development Monies for the Quadrennial
1973-1976

Rankings	*Sport*	*Budget Allocation For Development*	*Ranking By Allocation*
1	Athletics (M)	216,500	1
2	Swimming	146,000	2
3	Yachting	–	–
4	Athletes (W)	93,616	5
5	Wrestling	126,500	3
6	Basketball (M)	40,500	23
7	Shooting	5,000	35
8	Skiing	91,000	6
9	Diving	86,500	7
10	Ice Hockey	62,000	10
11	Figure Skating	65,000	8
12	Rowing (M)	101,700	4
13	Equestrian	51,500	16
14	Speed Skating	67,750	9
15	Boxing	53,950	13
16	Gymnastics (W)	50,450	17
17	Gymnastics (M)	44,250	19
18	Soccer Football	58,500	11
19	Water Polo	54,400	14
20	Fencing	43,200	21
21	Archery	27,400	28
22	Modern Pentathlon	41,000	22
23	Judo	26,700	30
24	Weight Lifting	53,500	16
25	Volleyball (M)	30,500	26
26	Volleyball (W)	30,500	27
27	Cycling	43,800	20
28	Canoe & Kayak	55,500	12
29	Team Handball	47,600	24
30	Bob Sled	22,600	31
31	Biathlon	34,250	29
32	Field Hockey	17,200	33
33	Luge	21,700	32
34	Baseball [3]	10,000	34
35	Basketball (W) [3]	34,000	25
36	Rowing (W) [3]	50,000	18
37	Synchronized Swimming [3]	17,060	–

[1] These are the rankings that resulted from evaluating the individual sports based on the six allocation criteria.

[2] These are the rankings based on the amounts of money awarded to sports as development grants for the quadrennial 1973-1976.

[3] Baseball and Synchronized Swimming are not ranked by the Committee since they only participate in the Pan American Games. Women's Basketball and Rowing were included in the Olympic Games for the first time in 1976 and therefore were not ranked.

$10 million for the upcoming quadrennial.

Voting Structure

This chapter has already delineated the voting on the Executive Committee and the Board of Directors and already characterized the membership. The following is an examination of the voting structures as a whole.

The chart on the following page demonstrates the voting allocations before the NCAA withdrew in late 1972. The AAU and NCAA votes are relatively comparable, with the AAU obtaining 560 votes in Group A and the NCAA obtaining the same amount in Group B. It is interesting to note in Group A that each delegate representing each NGB obtained 56 votes and that the AAU, with only nine NGB's, received representation for ten. It is also noteworthy that the NCAA in Group B received 56 votes per delegate and ten delegates (560 votes) while all other Group B organizations received only 14 votes per delegate. The NCAA had ten delegates, and the NAIA had five delegates. The National Federation of State High School Associations (and all other organizations in Group B) which trains more athletes than all of Group B combined had only one delegate with 14 votes (see High Schools and Sport Reports).

Both the AAU and the NCAA gathered votes

USOC Votes (Before NCAA withdrew)

	No. of Delegates	*Votes Per Delegate*	*Total Votes*
Group A	29	56	1624
Group B	31	14*	854
Group C	149	3	447
Group D	8	1	8
Group E	35	1	35
Group F	1	1	1
Group G	2	2	2
Group H	50	50	50
Group I	96 (approx.)	0	0
Totals:	401	128	3021

	AAU Votes	*Independents Votes*	*NCAA Votes*
Group A	560	1064	0
Group B	0	0	560
Group C	171	156	114
Totals:	732 (24% of vote)	1220 (40% of vote)	674 (22% of vote)

*NCAA had 10 delegates but received 56 votes per delegate to gain parity with AAU in Group A. All other Group B members had 14 votes per delegate.

in other categories of membership through affiliated memberships. Those additions are represented on the chart above.

The "Independents" actually possessed more voting power than the AAU or the NCAA during this period. However, as was pointed out earlier, they did not choose to exercise it as a unified group until the late 1960s.

The membership sections of this chapter pointed out the inconsistencies among membership for different types of organizations. This carries over to voting allocations. Should one of the lesser active AAU associations have the same number of votes as a major athletic conference of the NCAA? The same inconsistencies of voting allocations exist in all membership classes regarding all types of organizations.

The voting structure retained many of the aforementioned inconsistencies after Orlando. Although the NCAA withdrawal eliminated one of the voting blocks, the inconsistencies remained. The following table portrays the voting allocation after Orlando.

The USOC's Orlando amendments have been criticized by the NCAA and others for the following reasons:

- Increase of the size of the Board and Exective Committee.
- Reduction or decrease of influence of certain members of the Executive Committee and Board of Directors.
- Increase of voting power of Group A members to two-thirds of the total USOC membership.
- Increase in the number of votes for swimming and athletics to double that of other sports.
- Large voting power of the AAU in the entire membership.

USOC Votes (After Orlando)

	No. of Delegates	*Votes Per Delegate*	*Total Votes*
Group A	120	10	1200*
Group B	36	10	360
Group C	26	10	260
Group D	82	1	82
Group E	125	2	350
Group F	34	1	34
Group G	1	1	1
Group H	3	1	3
Group I	96 (approx.)	0	0
Totals:	533	36	2290

*Will be increased to ⅔ of total at each USOC meeting if necessary.

	AAU Votes
Group A	400
Group B	40
Group C	114
Total:	554 (24.2% of total vote)

The NCAA can hardly criticize the voting power of the AAU, since it had 22% of the voting power within the USOC before it withdrew. The AAU had roughly 24% before the NCAA left and the same percentage of the vote after the NCAA left.

Critics of their size feel that a 50 member Executive Committee and an 81 member Board of Directors is too unwieldy to perform efficiently. Critics of the reallocation of voting power on the Board and Executive Committee feel that their representation on these groups has been diminished by increasing their size, but not the voting power of the representative organizations. Athletes are particularly concerned about this issue. The NCAA has expressed concern over the increased voting power accorded to Group A members on the Board of Directors, the Executive Committee, and in the total USOC membership. According to the USOC, the major reason for enlarging the Board and the Executive Committee was to provide for a broader based representation in these groups.

The rationale behind the double votes for swimming and track and field is that each actually includes several sports (i.e., swimming includes diving and water polo). Therefore, to give each of these sports adequate representation, it was necessary to double the voting power. Critics maintain that the minor sports will suffer the consequence of not having adequate representation.

Federal Intervention

Past federal intervention has been directed toward individual sports organizations on particular issues. Examples are the MacArthur Plan in 1962 that was engineered by President John F. Kennedy and Attorney General Robert F. Kennedy and the 1965 Kheel Arbitration Board which was appointed by Vice President Hubert Humphrey to arbitrate issues in the sport of track and field. These federal interventions have not imposed constraints on the USOC. The USOC has responded to Congressional pressures for reform of their organization, as evidenced by the changes made at the Orlando meeting. However, any direct federal intervention would be viewed by the USOC as violating their mandate from the IOC "to be completely independent and autonomous and entirely removed from all political influence." Moreover, the USOC existed and functioned as an Olympic Committee long before it received a charter from Congress, and conceivably could continue to function without a Congressional charter. However, the USOC is sensitive to proposals before Congress that will affect Olympic and amateur sports in general and will support any "reasonable" proposal for change.

MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

Olympic House Department Heads and Staff

The USOC employs a full-time paid Executive Director and staff of approximately 27 persons to carry out the day-to-day operations of the USOC. The staff is located at the Olympic House on Park Avenue in New York City.

The staff is directed by the Executive Director who is an ex-officio member (non-voting) of the USOC Executive Committee. He is assisted by an assistant treasurer and an office manager. Four directors have administrative responsibilities in the following areas:

–Communications
–Fund raising
–Operations
–Special projects and planning.

These areas will be discussed in the following sections.

Communications

The Director of Communications is responsible for overseeing all documentation pertaining to the USOC. The USOC publishes an official Quadrennial Report, directories of members, and a monthly magazine as well as special publications for various purposes.

Operations

The Director of Operations and staff are responsible for overseeing the operations of sports committees and the Sports Budget Development Committee. The operations staff assists the sports committees in arrangements for implementation of the selection and fielding of athletes for the Olympic and Pan American Games. They assist the Sports Budget Development Committee in formulating procedures for the disbursement of monies for development, trials, and team preparation and other projects that this committee may undertake.

Fund Raising

The Director of Fund-Raising is responsible for coordinating the efforts of the State Olympic Chairmen, where necessary, and providing assistance (financial or otherwise) to them in the conduct of their activities. The Director is also responsible for assessing the status of current fund-raising efforts, initiating new types of efforts where indicated, and overseeing the fund-raising operation in general.

Special Projects and Planning

The Director for this area has just recently been appointed. As an attorney, the Director has been involved in arbitration concerning the Athlete's Bill of Rights and administering broken-time payments for athletes participating in this year's Games. There is, as yet, no clear-cut indication of the types of responsibilities that will be administered by this department.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The United States Olympic Committee is responsible for the Olympic movement in this country. It is charged by IOC rules to enter teams in the Olympic Games. It also enters teams in the Pan American Games.

The history of the USOC is characterized by many successes and much controversy. Many years ago, the USOC became a visible battleground on which the AAU and the NCAA debated their disagreements. However, throughout its history, the USOC has fostered great success in the Olympics by United States teams.

The USOC has grown in size over the years and so has its constituent organizations. Its name was changed several times and it has become financially sound.

The USOC's major role is to comply with the IOC in conducting the Olympic movement in this country. However, it has expanded its role over time to enter teams in the Pan American Games and, most important, to raise and allocate monies for amateur sports development.

The USOC is largely an organization of organizations. It is a multi-tiered structure with the major components being the Officers, the Executive Committee, Board of Directors, Standing Committees, Sport Liaison Committees and the Athletes Advisory Council. The Officers and Executive Director are the key group within the USOC for initiating policy although decisions are subject to approval by the Board of Directors.

Some organizations within the USOC hold separate memberships and are also members of one or more national governing bodies, which are also members of the USOC. Thus, there is a modicum of vertical integrated governing bodies within the USOC as it now exists.

The USOC has defined its membership classifications very carefully. However, widely diverse groups belong in each class leading to questions of similarity and parity of membership. Even within Group A, the Olympic national governing body membership category, aquatics and athletics have twice as many votes as any other NGB, thereby consciously relegating lesser developed sports to half their status.

By IOC rules, the Olympic NGBs must have over 50% of the vote in NOC membership. This rule is currently reflected in the composition of the Board of Directors and the Executive Committee. In times past, however, the Board and Executive Committee have not had a majority vote resting with the Olympic NGBs. IOC rules do not require a majority vote to the Olympic NGBs on the Board and Executive Committee.

The USOC is respected in international sports circles. Over the years, it has been a major contributor to and participant in the Olympic movement. It has safeguarded and promoted the Olympic movement in this country. However, within the USOC there has historically been much dissension among groups, particularly in recent years. The USOC and AAU have traditionally had good relations, while USOC and NCAA relations have been strained, and finally broken.

As a result, large voting blocks have existed within the organization. This has resulted in political deals (regardless of the merit of the decision), inconsistent action on the part of the USOC in dealing effectively with franchise disputes and failure to draft optimal constitutional changes effecting franchise disputes and athletes' rights.

The USOC raises great amounts of money to fund its operations and also has a large investment portfolio. While fund raising has been adequate, it could be much stronger. The USOC fund raises through corporate agreements and individuals. Development funds appear to be allocated to sports in violation of the USOC's constitution, depending on how the allocation process is analyzed.

The USOC has taken positive steps since the NCAA withdrew. As a private corporation, but with a Federal Charter, the USOC appears today to be willing to change significantly. Major changes made two years ago, while criticized by the NCAA, were viewed by most in amateur sports as improvements over the past. Finally, the USOC conducted its operations more than adequately in Mexico City, Innsbruck and Montreal, avoiding the harsh criticism it received following Munich.

YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

The Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) is a council of nearly 2,000 autonomous associations throughout the United States, oriented primarily toward education and recreation. YMCAs offer a balanced sports program, encouraging members to take part in a variety of activities and providing opportunities up to national level competition. A Group B[1] member of the U.S. Olympic Committee (USOC), the YMCA holds national championships in seven Olympic sports and lower level competition in four additional Olympic sports. The National YMCA Council runs no programs directly, but provides policy and program guidance to its member associations.

ORGANIZATION

History

In 1851 the first YMCA was established in the U.S. in Boston, Massachusetts. Its early growth was rapid: by 1853 there were 14 YMCA Associations or clubs, 49 by 1854 and 250 YMCAs with 25,000 individual members by 1860. The original purpose of these YMCAs related to religious understanding, but by the late 1850s classes in music, language, and physical recreation were being offered.

YMCAs first opened their membership to girls and women in the early 1900s. By 1975, girls and women constituted more than 35% of all YMCA members.

Early in its history, the YMCA contributed significantly to the Olympic movement. Individuals affiliated with the YMCA created two Olympic sports: James Naismith invented basketball in 1891 and William Morgan invented volleyball in 1895.

Major goals of the National YMCA organization include:

- Eliminating personal and institutional racism;
- Changing the conditions that foster alienation, delinquency and crime;
- Reducing health problems and strengthening physical and mental health;
- Strengthening family structures by enhancing relationships and improving communications;
- Joining peoples from other countries and building international understanding in world peace; and
- Stimulating the processes of developing and testing, communicating and implementing personal, organization, and community values which are in harmony with Christian principals.

Structure

A National Council acts as coordinating body for the more than 1,800 YMCA clubs, referred to as associations, throughout the country. Representatives are elected to the council biennially by the seven YMCA regional assemblies. Each regional assembly is made up of representatives elected by local YMCA Directors.

National Council officers are: a president, four vice presidents, a recording secretary, and two assistant recording secretaries. Of these, only the secretaries are employed by the Y; other officers are volunteers.

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[1] Group B members are national organizations which, directly or through their constituents, hold national championships in two or more Olympic or Pan American sports.

The National Council elects a 65-member National Board to conduct business between biennial council meetings. The National Board has eleven officers, four of whom — the Executive Director, two Assistant Recording Secretaries, and the Assistant Treasurer — are employed.

The YMCA does not provide for direct athlete representation in its national governance for two reasons: 1) athletics, particularly competitive athletics, is a very small part of the total YMCA program; and 2) election to the YMCA National Council and the National Board is democratic, the result of election from the grass roots, and provides an opportunity for anyone (including athletes) to serve on those bodies.

The office staff of the National Board in New York City is headed by an Executive Director for general administration. Programs are carried out in the following divisions:

- Office of Communication,
- Field Services Group Office,
- Financial Development Office,
- Finance and Administration Division Office,
- Buildings and Furnishing Service Office,
- International Division,
- Organization Development Group,
- National Purchasing Service Office, and
- Urban Action and Program Division.

Membership

Each local YMCA association is an autonomous organization, incorporated according to the laws of its home state. In 1974 registered members in these YMCAs numbered 6,169,537, of which 34.6% were women and girls, 65.4% were men and boys, 47.8% were under 18 years old, and 15.3% were 18 to 29 years old. The number of persons who registered for Y programs in 1974 was 2,500,158.

The number of YMCA clubs has changed very little during the period 1964 to 1974. There has, however, been a shift in the type of member clubs. City associations (including branches in metropolitan areas) have grown steadily, from 75.6% of total members in 1964 to 83.8% in 1974, while student and transportation associations have decreased from 17.3% of the total in 1964 to 4.6% of the total in 1974.

There are three types of YMCA membership. In 1974 family memberships constituted 27%, sustaining members 58%, and health club members 5% of the total YMCA membership. The number of registered members reached an all time high in 1974 of more than 6,000,000, an increase of 45.6% from a decade earlier. The growth in individual membership was accomplished with virtually no increase in the number of local associations, meaning that the number of members per association grew from an average of 2,601 in 1964 to 3,832 in 1974. The number of women and girls members increased at a faster rate during this period than did the number of men and boys.

There are no serious conflicts internal to the YMCA, nor is there a formal mechanism for arbitrating conflicts between groups or between groups and athletes within the YMCA structure. Each complaint appears to be handled on a case-by-case basis at the regional or national board level, depending upon the nature of the complaint.

Relationships with other Organizations

National Groups

The National YMCA Council belongs to the following organizations:

- American Athletic Union,
- U.S. Volleyball Association,
- U.S. Gymnastics Federation,
- American Canoe Association,
- U.S. Judo Association, and
- U.S. Wrestling Federation.
- U.S. Olympic Committee

Until the USOC Games Committees were phased out, the YMCA was represented on USOC Games Preparation Committees for basketball, judo, gymnastics, swimming, synchronized swimming, volleyball, water polo, weightlifting and wrestling.

International Groups

The United States YMCA Council is affiliated with active YMCAs in 80 countries throughout the world. These are coordinated through the World Alliance of YMCAs.

RESOURCES

Personnel

At the local level each YMCA is administered and supported by a staff composed of both paid professionals and volunteers. A typical YMCA would have a Board of Directors, a council, standing committees and campaign teams, a structure closely patterned after that of the National YMCA Council. In 1974, 344,535 persons served in various offical capacities in the 1,842 YMCA associations around the country. This represented an increase of 25.5% over the 1964 figure. The number of women in these leadership roles has grown at a rate twice that of their male counterparts, increasing by 43.3% (to 77,162) between 1964 and 1974, while men's participation in those roles grew 21.2% to 267,373. However, the number of women in these leadership roles is 22.4% of the total, whereas women represent 34% of all registered YMCA members.

Within each Y, activity groups are directed by leaders who are either volunteer or paid. The number of these leaders reached a new high in 1974 of 294,178.

The number of professional staff administrators at the local YMCA level decreased for the three years prior to 1974, reaching 5,503 in that year. Program directors were the largest group among the eight categories of staff positions, numbering 981. Median salaries for all directors increased by 45.6% from 1964 to 1974 to $11,250 per annum.

Facilities

Individual YMCAs have their own facilities for team practice, recreation, or classes. Typical facilities include swimming pools, basketball courts, and general purpose gymnasiums.

Finance/Funding

At the national level of the YMCA, money is needed to provide support services to individual associations and regions. The National Council does not directly administer programs.

For the 1,842 YMCA associations which administer programs, total operating revenue in 1974 was $317.8 million, while operating expenses totalled $326.4 million. Major categories of revenue are program activity fees, membership dues and contributions. Contributions and appropriations included United Fund allocations of $48.6 million in 1974. Major expenditures include program activities, management and general costs, and property maintenance. Exhibit I presents combined revenues and expenditures for the 1,842 YMCAs in 1964 and 1974.

COMPARATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF REVENUE & EXPENDITURES
(In 1000s)

	1964		1974		% Change 1974/1964	
	Amount	Total	Amount	Total	Amount	Total
CURRENT REVENUE						
Program Activities	$ 33,561	18.8%	$ 93,839	29.5%	179.6%	10.7%
Club Services	27,396	15.4	19,745	6.2	-27.9	-9.2
Residence	29,008	16.3	34,668	10.9	19.5	-5.4
Membership Dues	33,737	18.9	86,424	27.2	156.2	7.4
Income from Endowment	4,145	2.3	7,067	2.2	70.5	-0.1
Contributions, Appropriations	37,092	20.8	58,299	18.4	57.2	-2.4
All Other Income	13,464	7.5	17,799	5.6	32.2	-1.9
TOTAL INCOME	$178,403	100.0%	$317,841	100.0%	78.2%	—
CURRENT EXPENDITURES						
Program Activities	55,814	31.3	111,538	34.2	99.8	2.9
Club Services	23,166	13.0	16,836	5.2	-27.3	-7.8
Residence	13,421	7.5	17,378	5.3	29.5	-2.2
Management & General	44,805	25.2	96,294	29.5	114.9	4.3
Property Maintenance	28,060	15.8	55,615	17.0	98.2	1.2
Interest on Indebtedness	1,218	0.7	4,912	1.5	303.3	0.8
All Other Expense	11,559	6.5	23,828	7.3	106.1	0.8
TOTAL EXPENSE	$178,043	100.0	$326,401	100.0	83.3	—

DEVELOPMENT

Number of Competing Athletes

YMCAs offer a wide range of activities, but physical education has rapidly become the most heavily attended. Two of every three persons attending the YMCA in 1974 came for aquatic and other physical education programs. These participants numbered 4,484,239. In addition, more than one million members attended YMCA camps in the summer of 1974.

Efforts to Attract New Participants

Each YMCA association offers programs of its own choosing, but all are consistent with categories of program services determined by the National Council including:

- Aquatic programs,
- Leadership training,
- Health Education programs,

- Physical Fitness programs,
- Skill teaching, and
- Competitive activity.

Programs offered by an individual Y reflect the interests and demands of the community.

Providing a link between a local YMCA and the community are the volunteers who serve on the governing boards and councils of the association and who donate their time to lead groups within the Y club. Program directors, sports directors and some group leaders are employed by the YMCA to provide their services. The quality of instruction varies from program to program as well as from one YMCA to another, depending on local personnel. However, instructors in swimming, scuba diving and certain other activities must be certified through YMCA courses.

Each local YMCA must formulate a performance, plan, and policy statement according to guidelines established by the National Council. The statement need not be submitted to the national body, but areas of evaluation are:

- Purposes and objectives;
- Definition of constituency;
- Program and services;
- Organization of committees, councils, classes, clerks, and staff;
- Lay and professional personnel;
- Facilities and equipment;
- Finances and budget;
- Records, reports and interpretation of YMCA physical education;
- Relationships within and outside the association; and
- Plans for annual review, evaluation and revision.

Barriers to Participation

Membership fees for joining or participating in YMCA programs usually are not prohibitive. Fees are set by each local YMCA Association and are usually nominal for individual members. Average annual youth membership in one region is $25.

COMPETITION

The YMCA has competitive programs in eleven Olympic sports:

Archery
Basketball
Fencing
Gymnastics
Judo
Soccer
Swimming
Track & Field
Weightlifting
Wrestling
Volleyball

Figures are not available for the number of Ys offering programs in these sports.

National YMCA Championships are held in seven of the eleven Olympic sports. Of the remaining four, archery and fencing have local, state and regional competition; track and field is contested at the local and state levels; and soccer has competition at the local level only.

National Championships are hosted by local YMCAs upon application to the National Council. Applicants must demonstrate their ability to provide necessary facilities, equipment, personnel and financing. In addition, they must have had previous experience in sponsoring events and have endorsements from the governing boards of their respective associations. The sponsor must cover all Championship-related expenses and, must send 50% of any net profit to the National Council.

The YMCA sponsors recreational or educational programs in three other Olympic sports — canoeing, cycling and shooting. However, there is no competitive program in these sports.

YMCAs use AAU rules of competition for AAU-governed sports. In sports governed by organizations other than the AAU, the YMCA generally uses the governing body's rules of competition.

YMCA Rules

YMCA rules of eligibility are minimal. The most significant is the "dual representation" rule which allows an eligible individual to participate in both open and closed YMCA competition as long as the athlete has not competed for another YMCA association in the previous four months. The national rules place no restrictions on athletes who wish to compete for other organizations or groups, such as the AAU, high schools, or recreational leagues. However, these rules provide that local YMCAs may, in setting up inter-association leagues or competitions, adopt more stringent rules to meet their own needs or circumstances. (As a consequence of one particular local restriction, a grade school swimmer was forced to choose between swimming in non-YMCA team recreational competition in his hometown or in YMCA sectional team competition in the neighboring town where he had trained for two years.)

One other YMCA rule is important to Olympic sports development. This rule states that a professional athlete may participate in YMCA competition as long as he or she is not competing in his or her professional sport during the "competition year."

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The YMCA plays an important role in introducing individuals, primarily youngsters, to sports on the Olympic or Pan American roster. Opportunities for competition exist in eight Olympic sports from the local through the national level. Although elite athletes generally affiliate with the national governing bodies in their chosen sports to have more access to national caliber competition, the YMCA nevertheless is an important training ground for those athletes. YMCA clubs are both a supplement to athletes training through their school program and, at times, the sole training ground for athletes who do not have the benefit of a school-sponsored program in their chosen sports.

Through its membership in the U.S. Olympic Committee and selected national governing bodies, the YMCA contributes to policies pertaining to the Olympic sports. In general, it has worked cooperatively with all other amateur sports organizations to promote the Olympic movement in the U.S.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

OVERVIEW

The concern of the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), a council of 6,000 autonomous YWCA Clubs located around the country, is the general welfare of all women, regardless of race or religion. An independently incorporated organization which cooperates with, but is entirely separate from, the YMCA, the YWCA promotes social progress in the fields of health, education, culture, leadership and overall physical fitness.

With the increasing attention focused on the rights and role of women in all aspects of life, the efforts of the YWCA in this area have become even more pronounced. Major activities for women during FY 1975 included an international YWCA consultation on "Women — A Power for Change," regional seminars on economics and affirmative action plans, leadership training programs for teens, and executive management development programs.

ORGANIZATION

History

The first YWCA was established in 1855 in New York City, the second in 1866 in Boston. Other YWCAs soon followed across the country. Its original purpose was to unite young women in prayer, but included an emphasis on "aiding the self-supporting young woman." By the 1880s, the YWCA offered classes in bookkeeping, astronomy, stenography, cooking and typewriting. Physical education and recreation programs began with calisthenics classes in the 1870s; by the 1890s swimming constituted the major part of the athletics program.

During the late 1800s YWCA clubs dedicated to the special needs of women in college also were organized in colleges and universities, while Y-Teens programs for teenagers were founded in 1918.

Structure

A National Board coordinates activities for the nation's 6,000 autonomous YWCAs, and helps these member associations communicate and work with the World YWCA, headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland (there are YWCAs in 183 countries).

Goals and objectives of the National Board are:

- Eliminate all forms of racism;
- Support and provide programs for women, youth, and Third-World persons;
- Support positive social change for women of all races, ages, faiths, cultural and economic backgrounds;
- Advance equal rights under law, including active support for ratification and implementation of the Equal Rights Amendment;
- Join together women of all races, creeds and backgrounds in activities which promote the strengthening of individual character;
- Promote and help with family communication; and
- Promote international understanding.

The National Board conducts a four-year training program for future YWCA executive directors and also certifies its member associations. In addition, the Board is responsible for annual statistical reporting and publishes brochures, advertising pamphlets and a newspaper for distribution to YWCA clubs and/or individual members.

Officers and representatives from all member associations gather every three years to elect officers to the National Board as well as to discuss and outline programs.

National Board officers are:

- President;
- Vice-President;
- Vice-Presidents for Central Region, Eastern Region, Southern Region and Western Region;
- Vice-President, Ex-Officio;
- Secretary;
- Treasurer;
- Assistant Treasurer; and
- Executive Director.

Each member association is completely autonomous, with an administrative structure similar to that of the national board, including a board of directors and an executive director. Each unit also has an all-volunteer management committee. Some cities and regions have a central headquarters which supervises branches in nearby areas. Officers and directors of this central unit coordinate activities of these branches and help them communicate with the national council.

Relationships with Other Organizations

The following is a list of the health and sports organizations with which the YWCA has a cooperative relationship:

- Amateur Athletic Union;
- American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER);
- American Camping Association, Inc.;
- American National Red Cross;
- Council for National Cooperation in Aquatics;
- International Swimming Hall of Fame:
- National Association for Mental Health;
- National Health Council;
- National Jogging Association;
- National Recreation and Parks Association; and,
- President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports.

The YWCA is not a member of the U.S. Olympic Committee (USOC), apparently because the Association simply has felt no need to join. However, the YWCA is currently looking into the possibility of applying for USOC membership.

Although the YWCA is not involved with any of the organizations listed above in an administrative capacity, there is exchange of information. With regard to the YMCA, the two are totally separate organizations; neither is a member of the other and YWCA athletic competitions are separate from those of the YMCA. (Unlike the YWCA, the YMCA is a Group B member of the USOC.) In 1975, an ad hoc YWCA Committee on YMCA-YWCA relationships concluded that increased efforts were required to strengthen and clarify the YWCA as an autonomous women's organization. It was determined that cooperative relationships with YMCAs at the local level were important, but that joint building occupancy arrangements were becoming less satisfactory for administering programs and maintaining YWCA identity.

The International Division of the U.S. YWCA works with the World YWCA in Geneva. The International Division also assists in the development of YWCAs in foreign countries. This assistance consists primarily of leadership training.

RESOURCES

Personnel

National administration is conducted by 215 paid staff including clerical and professional employees, who work through various divisions such as Communications and Leadership Training, and subdivisions such as the Health and Recreation Subdivision.

Facilities

Each local YWCA has facilities for various athletic activities and, while some associations are better equipped than others, a typical YWCA would have a swimming pool, gymnasium, and areas for volleyball, tennis, karate, dance classes, etc. In some locales, the YWCA shares facilities with a YMCA or other organization.

Finance

Membership fees are the major source of local YWCA funds. In 1976 there were 2,476,000 registered members who paid an annual fee of $10 to $25. Additional funds are generated from course fees (a six-week learn-to-swim course generally costs around $15, for example).

Nationally, YWCA funding comes from a variety of sources. The YWCA National Board derives over half its income from local YWCA membership fees on a quota support system. Other sources include income from investments, appropriations from unrestricted reserve funds, and donations. Special projects (studies or activities) are funded by government contracts or donations from various foundations. Income for FY '75 was $3,829,657 which was spent on several major activities. Services to community and student YWCAs accounted for nearly half of all expenditures. Development and maintenance of the National Association, services on behalf of the whole YWCA, membership in the World YWCA, and fund raising costs accounted for the balance.

DEVELOPMENT

Participation

Registered members and program participants in 1975 numbered 2,456,000, including more than 200,000 boys and men (YWCA associate members who participate in co-ed sports) and 300,000 members in the Y-Teens program. The National Board does not break down membership figures into the percentages involved in various sports programs, but there is an accounting of participants in Aquatics and Physical Education classes:

- Aquatics, 1972-73, had 504,000 participants in 41,631 classes; and
- Physical Education, 1972-73, had 489,773 participants in 31,766 classes.

Athlete Development

Classes are offered by the YWCA in swimming, tennis, volleyball, judo, karate, gymnastics, fencing, diving and general physical education. Swimming is by far the most popular of these sports.

Each local Y plans and conducts its own athletic programs and, in conjunction with the National Board, uses advertising of various kinds to attract new participants. Local officials send literature to members of their association to promote interest in their programs.

Coaches

The skill of teachers and coaches varies from association to association, depending upon who is available locally, but some sports have instructors who are highly qualified.

COMPETITION

Swimming is the only sport for which any kind of competition is provided by the YWCA. Swim competitions conducted at local, state and national levels follow the same rules as those used in the Olympics. All other sports are conducted through classes or clinics, but have no competitions.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

While the YWCA does not have as its foremost objective the development and training of competitive athletes, it nevertheless provides a vast network of clubs for grass roots development in a variety of sports. Unlike the YMCA, the YWCA is not a member of the U.S. Olympic Committee at this time, although it is currently looking into the possibility of applying for membership. Because of the resources and programs of YWCA clubs in amateur sports, the national YWCA should be encouraged to affiliate with the national governing bodies for sports in which it has programs.

C. MISCELLANEOUS STUDIES

U.S. RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE INTERNATIONAL SPORTS COMMUNITY

The International Olympic Committee

The Olympic Games are held under the auspices of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), a private not-for-profit corporation with headquarters in Lausanne, Switzerland. The IOC was created in 1894; according to its rule book, the Committee's goals include:

- the regular celebration of the (Olympic) Games;
- making the (Olympic) Games ever more worthy of their glorious history and of the high ideals which inspired their revival by Baron Pierre de Coubertin and his associates;
- encouraging the organization and development of amateur sport and sport competitions;
- inspiring and leading sport within the Olympic ideal, thereby promoting and strengthening friendship between the sportsmen of all countries.

The IOC supervises the winter and summer Olympic Games, selects the sites for the Games, determines the rules of eligibility for competitors, and negotiates the broadcasting contracts for the Games, along with the host organizing committee.

IOC members consist of private individuals selected to membership by incumbent members. National Olympic Committees (NOCs) are not members of the IOC, and have no vote on IOC matters. The IOC "selects such persons as it considers qualified to be members, provided that they speak French or English and are citizens of and reside in a country which possesses a National Olympic Committee recognized by the International Olympic Committee." (Rule 12, *IOC Rulebook*, p. 8.) Although there are presently 134 NOCs, only 77 individuals serve as IOC members. Obviously, many countries are not represented on the IOC; others have one member, while "the largest and most active [countries] in the Olympic movement, and . . . those countries where the Olympic Games have been held . . . may [have] a maximum of two." (Rule 12, *IOC Rulebook*, p. 8.) The United States falls in the latter category.

The IOC recognizes an NOC as its agent for selecting and certifying Olympic competitors from the particular NOC's country or territory. "Only National Olympic Committees recognized and approved by the International Olympic Committee can enter competitors in the Olympic Games and the qualifying rounds." (Rule 24, *IOC Rulebook*, p. 14.)

In order to be recognized by the IOC, an NOC must be composed of at least five National Sport Federations. "These Federations in turn must be active members of the International Federations governing their sport on the Olympic programme." (Rule 24, *IOC Rulebook*, p. 14.)

Two important considerations emerge from an examination of IOC Rule 24. First, only NOCs can enter competitors in the Olympic Games, and second, the IOC is the sole judge of which NOCs will be permitted to enter such competitors. It could be argued, however, that the IOC's unbridled theoretical powers are more limited in reality; witness the furor over whether the team from Nationalist China could compete at the 1976 Olympics in Montreal. In that instance, the Canadian Government refused to allow Nationalist Chinese athletes to compete under the name of "Republic of China." The IOC had previously approved the phrase "Republic of China" and protested what it viewed as the Canadian Government's "political interference" in the internal affairs of the IOC. Such protests proved unavailing, however; the Nationalist Chinese refused to accept a "compromise"—allowing them to use their flag and national anthem but not the phrase "Republic of China"—and withdrew from the Games.

The U. S. Olympic Committee (USOC) is but one of 134 NOCs recognized by the IOC. These NOCs "have as their purpose the development and protection of the Olympic movement and of amateur sport . . . They are organizations formed not for pecuniary profit, but devoted to the promotion and encouragement of the physical, moral and cultural education of the youth of the nation, for the development of character, good health and good citizenship. National Olympic Committees must not associate themselves with affairs of a political or commercial nature." (Rule 24, *IOC Rulebook*, p. 14.)

NOCs are structured in a number of different ways. Many, for example, receive a substantial portion of their funds from their national governments. Some NOCs are funded entirely by their national governments, but the USOC is unique in that it is the only NOC which receives no government funds. One structural characteristic shared by all NOCs, however, is the IOC-dictated requirement that they be composed of at least five national sport federations. These national federations "in turn must be active members of the International [Sport] Federation governing their sport on the Olympic programme." (Rule 24, *IOC Rulebook*, p. 14.)

International Federations

There are a number of international sport federations. In fact, virtually every competitive sport not solely national in scope, is governed by such a federation. However, less than half of these federations are affiliated with the IOC because not all govern sports on the Olympic programme. Each of these international federations designates a national representative to each country competing in the sport. This agent for the international federation is referred to by various titles, including: National Governing Body, National Sport Federation, National Franchise Holder, etc. As discussed in other portions of the report, the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) acts as the U. S. agent for eight Olympic affiliated international federations: athletics (track and field), swimming, boxing, wrestling, weightlifting, judo, bobsled, and luge. All other national agents except one administer only one sport, and are affiliated with only one international federation.[1]

Several international federation leaders have expressed to the Commission a desire that all sports be governed by an independent, single-sport federation, rather than having one organization such as the AAU predominate. Essentially, many international leaders believe that independent federations are more efficient and responsive to the needs of their sport than is a multi-sport organization. For example, the former Honorary Secretary-Treasurer of the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF) has stated that his federation "would welcome a reorganization whereby the Track and Field section of the A.A.U. became more independent, so that it could be separately affiliated to the I.A.A.F. in place of the A.A.U. I should emphasize that the A.A.U. has always been a loyal member, fulfilling its obligation so far as this Federation is concerned, and making a valuable contribution to its work by representation on its Council and various Committees; nevertheless, an independent Track and Field national governing body would have a better chance of extending its scope to cover effectively all aspects of the sport in the U.S.A."[2]

The international federations play a critical role in world athletic competition. For example, each federation exercises technical control of the sport it governs, appoints and certifies referees for international competitions, and establishes rules of eligibility for all international events except the Olympics. The fact that each federation determines its own eligibility rules has led to "open" competition in team sports such as ice hockey and soccer. Such competition permits participation by professional athletes. The IOC's code of amateurism governs Olympic competition, however, thus prohibiting "open" competition at that level.

Many of the questionable decisions adversely affecting U. S. athletes in recent Olympiads were rendered by these international federations, and not directly by the IOC or USOC. Examples include the much-disputed "replay" of the last few seconds of the 1972 USA-USSR basketball final. The initial decision to reset the clock, as well as the final decision upholding the Russian victory, was approved by the International Basketball Federation (FIBA). Similarly, Bob Seagren's pole was barred from the

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[1] It should be noted that Biathlon (Winter Games) and Modern Pentathlon (Summer Games) are administered by a single international federation and one national governing body (the U. S. Modern Pentathlon and Biathlon Association.)

[2] Letter dated March 31, 1976 from Frederick W. Holder, then Honorary Secretary-Treasurer, International Amateur Athletic Federation, to Gerald B. Zornow, Chairman, President's Commission on Olympic Sports.

Munich pole vault competition by the International Track and Field Federation (IAAF).

Franchise Disputes

Battle lines have often been drawn in U. S. amateur sports regarding control of one particular national governing body (NGB) or another. These squabbles develop because of the power possessed by the holder of the national franchise. United States athletes must obtain the NGB's "sanction" or approval to compete abroad. Obtaining such a sanction can be a difficult if not impossible task if an athlete or organization is not affiliated with the NGB. Similarly, the NGB must approve competitions in the U. S. involving foreign organizations and athletes.

Difficulties in obtaining the necessary sanction frequently arise because of the incumbent governing body's reluctance to publicize a challenging group's vitality. As Don Canham, the President of the U. S. Track and Field Federation (USTFF) has testified, "we [the USTFF] can pick up the phone and get a team from Finland, but the AAU will not invite the team from Finland, because we initiated the invitation. Now that may sound ridiculous, but I can document a case in point, and not once, but a hundred times." [3]

These sanctioning disputes, as well as other jurisdictional clashes, have led to NGB franchise challenges in a number of sports, such as basketball, gymnastics, track and field, and wrestling. Typically, individuals displeased with the incumbent NGB's performance have banded together to form a rival organization, and have then sought to gain control of the franchise. Challengers for a francise quickly discover, however, that no direct, clear-cut procedure exists for filing such a claim. Although each sport is beset with its own complexities, as a general rule each international federation reserves to itself the final decision regarding designation of the NGB (its agent) in any particular country.

Confusing the decision-making process, however, is the aversion of most international federations to interfere directly in what they view as essentially domestic squabbles. The international wrestling federation (FILA) has, for example, refused for some time to intercede in the franchise dispute between the AAU and the NCAA-backed U. S. Wrestling Federation (USWF). Rather, FILA has on occasion looked to the USOC for a recommendation concerning the dispute. As a matter of general policy and because of its sensitive position vis-à-vis the AAU-NCAA dispute, the USOC has been reluctant recently to take what would be essentially a no-win stand, regardless of its decision. (See the chapters in this volume on the USOC and on the sport of wrestling.) This circular ambiguity is present in many sports. Neither the international federations nor the USOC desire to offend the present franchise holders. As a consequence, the franchise challenge issue has remained clouded despite the desires of many organizations—the international federations, elements within the USOC, and certainly the challenging organizations—for resolution.

However, the international federations, as well as the IOC and the USOC, have made their opposition clear to U. S. Government involvement in franchise challenge disputes, such as through the creation of a Presidentially-appointed Amateur Sports Board, which was one feature of S.3500 (the Amateur Athletic Act of 1974, which passed the Senate but was not enacted into law). For example, according to Lord Killanin, the President of the IOC, "the U. S. would [have] risk[ed] putting itself not only out of the Olympic movement, but also out of the international federations" by creating such a Board.[4]

In Lord Killanin's opinion, franchise review by a Presidentially appointed Board "could well lead to conflict with the international sports federations as it is not only their responsibility but their right to recognize the national federations which comply with their rules." [5]

The vast majority of the international federations also voiced their opposition to S.3500's Presidentially appointed Board.[6]

A generalized view exists among the international federations in opposition to government involvement in sport. This generalized view is often transformed into the more specific belief that the United States, long-noted for its democratic processes, should not resort to governmental control of athletics.

Typical of the international federations' attitudes are the following:

—Lieutenant Colonel Russell, former President of AIBA, (the international boxing federation) commenting in 1973 on S.3500's Presidentially appointed Board:

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[3] Public Hearings of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports, April 8, 1976, p. 119.

[4] Lord Killanin, interview, ABC-TV, "Issues and Answers," February 21, 1974 as reprinted in 8 *Vanderbilt Journal of Transnational Law,"* pp. 843-844 (1975).

[5] Letter dated July 12, 1973, from Lord Killanin to Presidents of all National Olympic Committees. The same theme is repeated in Lord Killanin's letter dated August 13, 1974 to President Ford.

[6] Charles Palmer, President of the International Judo Federation, says 23 of the 26 international federations opposed such a Board.

"The A.I.B.A. Bureau of the Americas has brought to my attention that your Government has proposed legislation whereby a Presidential Commission would determine which USA organization could apply for A.I.B.A. membership. I wish to emphatically point out to you that this is completely contrary to worldwide procedures of A.I.B.A. and entirely unacceptable to us. We reserve the right for the sole determination of which organization shall be our member in the U.S.A. A government selected and controlled organization in the U.S.A. conducting boxing competition could mean that such U. S. athletes would not be eligible for international competition – including the Olympic Games.

"Officers and members of the international body who control the activities of the sport of amateur boxing have to be nominated by their national governing body, which is affiliated to A.I.B.A. A nominee of a government organization would not be eligible for this. I believe that this position exists in all International Federations recognized by the I.O.C. and other world organizations . . . "[7]

– Thomas Keller, President of the International Rowing Federation, and also President of the General Assembly of International Federations (GAIF), reacting to a Presidentially appointed Board similar to S.3500's proposal, stated that it would be a "catastrophic precedent to set for the free world and the world at large."[8]

Role of the USOC

On the other hand, officials of the USOC and NGBs have voiced approval for franchise resolution by the American Arbitration Association. The IOC leadership and the vast majority of international federation officials interviewed by the Commission have endorsed such a mechanism with subsequent certification to the appropriate international federation by the USOC. It should be noted that nearly all of the international federations either require by their own rules or accept an NOC's certification of the appropriate organization to act as the NGB for the sport in question.

Thus, in nearly all Olympic sports, a certification or recommendation from the USOC is a critical prerequisite to a franchise transfer from one NGB to another. Such a transfer is, of course, ultimately the prerogative of the international federation, but there is little evidence to suggest that any would nullify the decision of an NOC. The close relationship between the USOC and a particular international federation on franchise certification issues is understandable, inasmuch as a national governing body is, at one and the same time, a Group A member of the USOC and a member of its particular international federation.

The following comments[9] are typical of the international federation leadership's position regarding the importance of the USOC on franchise matters:

Equestrian: "The Equestrian Federation recognizes the NGB certified by the USOC";

Field Hockey: "USOC certification is paramount";

Judo: "The USOC is the final authority on the NGB";

Luge: "The Luge Federation position is that the USOC must decide who should be the governing body for Luge in the U. S."

However, it should be noted that the USOC has already, through an amendment to its Constitution, endorsed the American Arbitration Association (AAA) as an appropriate vehicle for franchise resolution. Three major points emerge from this. First, based on its prior support, it would appear quite unlikely that the USOC would oppose the Commission's recommendations concerning the American Arbitration Association, outlined in the Volume I chapter on Franchise Resolution.

Second, the USOC's endorsement is significant because the more committed it is during the certification procedure, the greater the likelihood that a recalcitrant international federation will ultimately accept the AAA's determination. Third, the USOC's status on franchise matters is unique, inasmuch as all the franchise holders (national governing bodies) *must* belong to the USOC in order to participate in the Olympics. (IOC Rule 24, *IOC Rulebook*, p. 14.) Consequently, NGBs can be required, through an amendment to the USOC's Federal Charter (Public Law 805), to submit franchise disputes to binding arbitration. The USOC would then be required to certify the "winner" of the arbitration award to the appropriate international federation. In addition, the USOC would be required, in those situations where the international federation considered the USOC's certification to be merely advisory and not conclusive, to use its best efforts to obtain recognition for the arbitration award "winner." (However, see the USOC chapter in this volume.)

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[7] Letter dated August 7, 1973, from Lt. Colonel Russell to David G. Rivenes, then President of the AAU, reprinted in *Hearings before the Committee on Commerce, United States Senate*, November, 1973, pp. 118-119.

[8] President's Commission on Olympic Sports staff interview, Montreal, July, 1976.

[9] President's Commission on Olympic Sports Staff Summary, international federation interviews, Montreal, July, 1976.

Re-emphasizing the point made earlier, the Commission endorses the above-described procedure not only because of the support it has received from the various international and national sports organizations, but also because it should prove to be fair and efficient. During the course of the Commission's study, the staff was able to interview most of the prominent figures in the various international federations and many members of the IOC. The interviews dispelled, as far as the Commission is concerned, a widely-held stereotype of anti-Americanism on the part of the international federations and the IOC. All those interviewed expressed the hope that problems plaguing amateur athletics in the U. S. could be quickly solved. Nevertheless, the international federation spokesmen declared that the United States, as the leader of the free world, should set an example for other countries by establishing an effective sports program free of political and governmental interference. The President of the International Skiing Federation, who is also a member of the IOC, expressed a typical view concerning this issue: "The U. S. should foster democracy in amateur sports and set an example for the rest of the free world." [10]

Essentially, the international federations, as well as the IOC, are fighting against creeping governmental control of amateur sports throughout the world, and not just in Communist or developing countries. These groups want the U. S. to solve its amateur sports difficulties in a manner free from heavy-handed government involvement; such a solution would be supported enthusiastically by both the IOC and the international federations. The leaders of sport throughout the world could then join with the United States in preventing the spread of political control over amateur athletics. According to the President of GAIF, government control of sport, particularly when the Commission's findings have proved such a drastic step unnecessary, would be "a catastrophic precedent to set for the free world and the world at large."

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[10] President's Commission on Olympic Sports, Staff Summary, international federations interviews, Montreal, July, 1976.

FINANCING AMATEUR ATHLETICS

This report presents information about selected potential sources, both public and private, of funding for U.S. amateur sports. All indications are that considerable funding will be required to sustain a diversified, effective and organized group of amateur sports programs. The Commission's estimate of one-time incremental funding requirements are approximately $215 million, with continuing additional annual requirements of approximately $83 million. Any estimate of the funds required on either a one-time or annual basis is subject to discussion. The Commission's review did not attempt to determine expenditures by educational and recreational organizations at the state and local level, nor to estimate how much of those expenditures might be diverted to support competitive amateur athletics. However, given appropriate cooperation from private organizations and governmental entities, the financial future for Olympic/amateur sports appears promising.

The following sources were examined by the Commission:

—Commemorative Coins;

—Commemorative Medals and Stamps;

—Excise Tax;

—Federal Programs:
  -Department of Agriculture,
  -Department of Interior,
  -Department of Housing and Urban Development,
  -Department of Commerce,
  -Community Services Administration, and
  -President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports;

—Other Federal Programs;

—Miscellaneous Public Programs;

—National Sports Lottery; and

—Private Sector/Corporate Programs.

FINANCIAL NEEDS

At all levels of amateur sports administration — local, state, regional, and national — resources are inadequate to allow for the development of athletes, coaches and officials; to foster adequate competition; to build and maintain facilities; and to ensure professional administration. Present expenditures and funding requirements in these four areas may be defined as follows:

—*Administration:* those items related to the conduct of the affairs of an organization in managing a sports program. This category should include all salaries for organization staff except those with specific and singular responsibility for facilities operation, development activities (e.g., coaches), or competitive activities (e.g., judges). All service costs incurred by the organization, such as mailing, publications, etc., should be included.

—*Development:* those costs directly associated with one-time or continuing development activities of coaches, athletes and officials from the grass roots up to but not including elite development for specific international competitions. Activities sponsored by the organization, such as local exhibitions, training camps, development camps, clinics, seminars and training manuals or handbooks should be included.

—*Competition:* includes expenditures for the conduct or support of competitions, and for exhibitions, international and domestic travel, room, board and per diem expenses that are the responsibility of the organization. Also included is development of elite athletes for specific international competitions.

—*Facilities:* charges incurred by the organization for rent, lease, construction and/or maintenance of facilities. This includes annual depreciation charges for facilities owned by the organization.

Present Spending Levels

Estimates of the current aggregate level of expenditures in amateur sports are not easily derived. Financial information collected from Olympic sport national governing bodies reveals, however, that during the most recent fiscal year for which figures are available,[1] these organizations spent approximately $6.564 million for national and international level activities. Forty-three percent — or $2.824 million — was spent on administration, 2% ($0.146 million) on facilities and major equipment, 20% ($1.271 million) on development (primarily elite development), and 35% ($2.323 million) on competition at the national and international levels. See Table I, below, for a sport-by-sport breakdown of estimated expenditures.) Such items as staff salaries; travel; communications; meeting expenses; purchase, rental or maintenance of equipment; training camps; clinics; seminars; national-level competitions; exhibitions; and tours, are covered by these expenditures.

Table II is a presentation of appropriations made by the U.S. Olympic Committee's (USOC's) Development Committee during the 1973-76 quadrennial. The total appropriated for Olympic sports was about $3.9 million. According to information provided by the USOC, the organization spent approximately $8 million for its own operations, as follows:

Fund raising	$2,927,048	37%
Administration	1,290,980[2]	16%
Development	—	—
Competition	3,759,897	47%
	$7,977,925	100%

The estimated total of funds spent by national governing bodies and the USOC on an annual basis over the past quadrennial is shown in Table III.[3]

Arriving at an accurate estimate of the amount of money being spent at the regional, state and local levels would be extremely difficult and has not been attempted by the Commission. However, for every dollar spent at the national level on the development of sports, $10, $20 or even $30 may be spent by individuals, schools, colleges, universities, clubs and state and local governments for recreational programs and facilities, grass roots development, lower level competitions, and development of coaches and officials.

Projected Financial Needs

The most visible needs in U.S. amateur athletics occur at the national level. Financial requirements to support international competition, build regional sports centers, pay professional administrators, mount training programs for elite athletes, and the like, are painfully manifest and relatively easily calculated. However, a larger and more pressing need exists below the national level. Major efforts must be mounted to build or reinforce the participation and competition base essential to the eventual development of the country's best athletes.

While the U.S. school/college system has no equal in the world, even its most ardent advocate would concede that greater financial resources are needed to support expanded programs in some of the lesser

TABLE I

Estimated National Governing Body Expenditures During the Most Recent Fiscal Year for which Figures are Available*

SPORT	*TOTAL in Dollars*
Archery	$ 71,000
Basketball	70,000
Biathlon	32,250
Bobsled	35,653
Boxing	207,687
Canoeing	800
Cycling	210,000
Diving	12,464
Equestrian	365,829
Fencing	90,744
Field Hockey	31,000
Figure Skating	650,990
Gymnastics	222,600
Ice Hockey	279,000
Judo	43,648
Luge	18,500
Penthalon	57,000
Rowing	64,336
Shooting	245,328
Skiing	2,099,516
Soccer	240,000
Speed Skating	22,392
Swimming	306,310
Team Handball	Unknown
Track & Field	473,752
Volleyball	228,515
Weight Lifting	43,739
Water Polo	6,325
Wrestling	92,564
Yachting	376,100
TOTAL	$6,598,822

*These estimates are based on analysis of available financial statements and discussions with officials of sports governing bodies.

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[1] Fiscal years for which national governing bodies provided financial information do not coincide.

[2] Includes prior quadrennial expenses of $34,433.

[3] For national governing bodies actual figures were used, while for the USOC an annual average of expenditures over the period 1973-76 was used.

TABLE II

USOC Development Committee Appropriations for the Most Recent Quadrennial 1973-76

Sport	*Comm. Expenses*	*Development**	*Team Prep. & Trials/ Extended team train.*	*TOTAL*
Archery	$ 350	$ 27,400	$ 2,400	$ 30,150
Basketball	2,366	74,500	119,000	195,866
Biathlon	1,619	34,250	16,300	52,169
Bobsled	400	22,600	4,000	27,000
Boxing	612	53,950	65,000	119,562
Canoeing	1,547	55,500	8,500	65,547
Cycling	2,400	43,800	54,800	101,000
Diving	743	86,500	32,500	119,743
Equestrian	—	51,500	16,200	67,700
Fencing	1,400	43,200	50,400	95,000
Field Hockey	778	17,200	27,100	45,078
Figure Skating	1,200	69,000	9,000	79,200
Gymnastics	1,797	94,700	49,700	146,197
Ice Hockey	1,370	62,000	63,700	127,070
Judo	395	26,000	29,400	55,795
Luge	844	21,700	8,400	30,944
Pentathlon	300	41,000	5,400	46,700
Rowing	5,255	151,700	162,300	319,155
Shooting	—	5,000	—	5,000
Skiing	—	91,000	70,100	161,100
Soccer	2,516	58,500	50,100	111,116
Speed Skating	610	67,750	28,000	96,360
Swimming	8,411	146,000	124,700	279,111
Team Handball	2,021	47,600	192,400	242,021
Track & Field	6,290	310,116	334,300	650,706
Volleyball	2,400	61,000	93,600	157,000
Weightlifting	1,396	53,500	25,000	79,896
Water Polo	943	66,500	34,600	102,043
Wrestling	2,656	126,500	107,700	236,856
Yachting	—	9,000	9,000	
TOTAL	$50,619	$2,009,966	$1,793,600	$3,854,185

*Development expenses are USOC Development Committee grants for development activities like training camps and clinics. In most sports, these activities are designed to develop world class athletes to the highest level of competition within that sport. In sports with no world class athletes and a limited competitive development base — and only in these sports — USOC development monies are appropriated for broad base development programs.

known sports, as well as programs and opportunities for the post-school athlete. The network of sports clubs whose existence is threatened by financial difficulties is also in need of increased support.

The financial needs of amateur athletes cannot be satisfied by a simple one-time injection of funds. Certain one-time requirements should be met, particularly in the area of facility construction and design of developmental programs, but the need exists for continuing expenditures significantly higher than the amount currently spent at all levels by organizations and individuals.

Although any estimate, on either a one-time or an annual basis, is open to criticism, it is essential to any planning effort to make an order of magnitude estimate. An estimate of required incremental funding is presented in Table IV. The derivation of these estimates is illustrated in Tables IV-A and IV-B.

Table IV-A presents estimated one-time financial needs for amateur sports in the U.S. These figures reflect both national level requirements and spin-off requirements at the sub-national level. Sub-national administrative requirements might be as high as ten times those at the national level. However, a multiplier of four was used to reflect the view that monies spent at the national and regional levels will stimulate new financing at the local and state levels.

One-time expenditures are categorized under administration, facilities or development. Administration incorporates such items as capital purchases (e.g., xerox machine, typewriters, desks, chairs, stationery) and start-up service purchases (e.g., publishing services, legal counsel). The facilities category includes the building of national training centers, as needed, and selected local or regional facilities. One-time development costs include design and establishment of basic programs and program materials, and formulation of short and long range plans. There are no postulated one-time ex-

TABLE III

Estimated Annual Expenditures on Amateur Sports at the National Level (National Governing Bodies and USOC EXPENDITURES

	*USOC** *(excl. Olympic Development*	*USOC** *Olympic Development*	*NGBs*	*Total*
Administration	$1,045,898	$ 12,614	$2,824,544	$3,883,056
Facilities	—	7,493	145,916	153,409
Development	6,765**	246,074	1,271,051	1,523,890
Competition	943,224	685,103***	2,322,075	3,950,402
	$1,995,887	$951,284	$6,563,586	$9,510,757

*Annualized

**Annualized development grants to non-Olympic sports on the Pan American calendar.

***Includes an estimated portion of USOC 'Development' grants that were spent on elite development in preparation for specific international competitions.

penditures for competition; these are considered under "continuing needs." The total amount of one-time financial needs for U.S. amateur sports is estimated to be $215 million.

Table IV-B presents estimates for continuing incremental financial needs. Again, a multiplier of four was used to arrive at estimates of needs at the sub-national level. This should not be construed to mean that four times as much money is spent at the sub-national level as is spent at the national level. Rather, an estimated minimum of four times the amount spent at the national level should be spent at the sub-national level to encourage and support the stimulated demand and activity.

The categories used in Table IV-B are the four used throughout the paper: administration, facilities, development and competition. Projections at the national level are based on general information provided the Commission by individuals active in all aspects of the Olympic sports; while the Commission believes them sufficiently accurate to demonstrate the need, these figures were not scientifically generated nor empirically verified.

Projections under national administration provide for increases in the professional staff of national governing bodies, the hiring of national coaches or officials as appropriate, the hiring of 'training center' staff as needed, office rental and other overhead, use of outside services such as publication and statistics compilation as needed, and direct costs of travel and communications. Facilities projections include costs of maintaining and funding replacement of needed facilities (on a straight line depreciation basis), as well as purchasing and maintaining (including transporting) major equipment in sports with these requirements. Incremental development needs at the national level have been estimated so as to encompass development of athletes, coaches, officials, and the sports in general. The types of activities and/or programs projected under this category include seminars, clinics, training camps, certification courses, and age group programs. Activities included under the competition category include Olympic training camps, tours, exhibitions, and competitions at both the international and domestic level.

The Commission recognizes that the funds shown, if provided, will not solve all the nation's amateur athletic needs overnight. Some would argue that the magnitude of funding shown would do little more

TABLE IV

Estimated Incremental Amateur Athletic Financial Requirements[1] ($ In Thousands)

	One Time	*Annualized*
Administration	$ 5,000	$19,000
Development	50,000	24,000
Facilities	160,000[2]	18,000
Competition	—	22,000
TOTAL	$215,000	$83,000

[1] Includes estimated amounts necessary to satisfy national and sub-national level needs.

[2] Represents estimated amount required in addition to funds being expended to prepare facilities for the 1980 Winter Olympic Games at Lake Placid, New York.

TABLE IV-A

Projected One-time Financial Needs for Amateur Sports in the United States

Administration		
National Level	$ 1,000,000	
Sub-National Level	4,000,000	
		5,000,000
Facilities		
National Level	32,000,000	
Sub-National Level	128,000,000	
		160,000,000
Development		
National Level	10,000,000	
Sub-National Level	40,000,000	
		50,000,000
	TOTAL	215,000,000

TABLE IV-B

Projected Continuing Annual Financial Needs (Incremental) for Amateur Sports in the United States (in thousands)

Administration		
National Level	$ 4,000	
Sub-National Level	15,200	
		19,000
Facilities		
National Level		
Replacement costs	2,600	
Maintenance costs	1,000	
Sub-National Level		
Replacement costs	10,400	
Maintenance costs	4,000	
		18,000
Development		
National Level	4,800	
Sub-National Level	19,200	
		24,000
Competition		
National Level	4,400	
Sub-National Level	17,600	
		22,000
It is assumed that this level of funding will continue to be available.		
	TOTAL	$83,000

TABLE V

Total Projected Financial Needs of Amateur Sports

Case 1: Assuming no corpus of funds, funds raised annually:	
One-time Funding Needs	$215,000,000
Continuing Annual Funding Needs	83,000,000
Case 2: Assuming a corpus of funds, proceeds to be used for continuing financing of amateur sports	
One-time Funding Needs	
Direct Expenditures	$215,000,000
Corpus	830,000,000
Annual Continuing funding:	
Corpus of	$830,000,000
@10% annual interest yields:	83,000,000

than keep the U. S. a poor cousin to some countries in terms of support of amateur athletic programs. The Commission believes, however, that infusing approximately $215 million on a one-time basis and concurrently providing roughly $83 million on an annual basis will have a significant multiplier effect on resources generated in support of amateur athletics.

Given cooperation among private organizations and governmental entities in this country, a little seed money should stimulate significant progress. Very little money on a sustaining basis is required to make more accessible to U. S. athletes the excellent facilities already in existence in nearly every community. Very little in the way of professional administrative help should be required to recruit volunteer help and to give the many volunteers now working in amateur sports programs greater opportunities to contribute.

Table V illustrates the level of financing required to meet estimated incremental needs using either of two financing plans. The first plan assumes it will not be possible to establish an endowment or corpus at the outset, such that only the proceeds would be used in the future. The second plan assumes there will be a corpus sufficient to yield adequate funding for continuing annual needs. Clearly, a mix of these two plans is possible and perhaps preferable.

In any case, these funds should be spent with the conscious goal in mind of improving developmental and competitive conditions for U. S. amateur athletes.

The Commission examined a number of funding sources that could be exploited by amateur sports groups. These sources are discussed below in terms of the potential benefits and barriers involved with each one.

COMMEMORATIVE COINS

A coin program commemorating the contributions of amateur sports and/or the Olympics to the American lifestyle has been proposed as a potential source of funds. To determine the demand and feasibility of establishing such a program in the United States, data was collected and analyzed, and interviews were conducted with government and private officials both here and in Canada.

Treasury Department issuance of commemorative coins to raise funds for a non-governmental group or event dates back to 1892 when Congress authorized special coins to commemorate the World Columbian Exposition in Chicago. The latest issuance was in 1951 to commemorate Booker T. Washington and George W. Carver and raise memorials in their memory.

There have been only two special issuances of coins in this decade, the Eisenhower silver dollars in 1970 and the Bicentennial coins issued from 1973 through 1976. In both cases, funds collected accrued to the general fund of the Treasury and marketing and sales were conducted exclusively by the Bureau of the Mint.

One of the first priorities of a coin program would be to acquaint members of Congress and the Executive Branch with the significance and potential benefits of such a program. In Canada, a memo circulated among cabinet members outlined criteria to be applied to special coin proposals. In summary, the criteria are:

—Coins commemorate an international event in which most nations recognized by Canada participate;

—Event is not likely to be held more than "once in a lifetime" in Canada;

—Event is universally recognized in terms of its contribution to world understanding;

—Event will enjoy wide national and international public support and participation;

—Event will be apolitical by nature;

—Event will have no racial or religious bias, and

—Event will have no commercial or professional objectives.

In addition to the above Canadian criteria, a U.S. coin program might also consider the following:

—A coin program must have sufficient lead time before the Olympics in order to take full advantage of U.S. anticipation and enthusiasm for the upcoming Games. If the 1984 Summer Games are located in the U.S., there would be adequate lead time for such a program. The most optimal program would include the marking of gold coins although silver coins might be just as successful depending on the position of world commodity markets.

—Marketing and distribution of the coins could be conducted initially through the U.S. Mint, with private organizations such as the Franklin Mint also given consideration.

—Coins could be encased attractively to discourage their circulation into the U.S. monetary system. Those coins which are put into circulation might be repurchased by the program, as done in Canada.

—As indicated by the Canadians, the Olympics are international, apolitical, contribute to world understanding, and have no commercial or professional objectives.

—Congress must be persuaded that the issuance of Olympic Commemorative Coins will not open the door to a plethora of similar requests from other organizations.

Potential Benefits

A coin program would be well received by the American public in that it would produce significant revenue for amateur sports. The Eisenhower silver dollar program produced approximately $65 million; the Bicentennial coin program has netted $26 million so far; and the Canadian program generated $200 million in Canadian sales and $85 million in U.S. sales. Based on these figures, it is estimated that an appropriately developed American gold and/or silver coin program could generate between $1.0 and $1.2 billion in gross sales, or a net of $500-$600 million for amateur sports.

The intrinsic value of the coins and their potential growth in worth make coins of this type attractive to U.S. collectors, as well as collectors throughout the world. Also, those who truly wish to support amateur sports in this country can do so with a tangible return.

Potential Barriers

The greatest resistance to a commemorative coin program will come from both the Executive and Legislative branches of government. Arguments against commemorative coins voiced by President Hoover in the 1930s might be justifiable today as well:

—Commemorative coins are contrary to the purpose of the currency system, which is to function as a medium of exchange;

—A multiplicity of coin designs might confuse the public and encourage counterfeiting;

—The purpose of the coins would be abused by dealers who might buy up the coins to make large private gains;

—The Treasury would have no control over private dealer prices; and

—The flood of proposals for other commemorative coin programs after the authorization of one such program would be alarming, and justification of one program over another could cause hard feelings.

Another major problem concerns the marketing mechanism and handling of receipts. If the Mint were the sole marketer of the coins, both the seigniorage[4] and premium would be treated as Treasury receipts, which by law are automatically deposited in the general fund of the Treasury. These circumstances would demand that either:

—The Congress earmark these funds for amateur sports, thereby avoiding the appropriations process and keeping the federal government from deciding how the money will be spent; *or*

—The normal yearly appropriations process be embraced as the method for distributing funds from the general account to amateur sports.

The former alternative might be appealing, but elected officials do not consider such "backdoor financing" a prudent way to spend public money.

There might also be opposition to a proposal to mint gold coins. The International Monetary Fund prefers to de-emphasize the relationship between

[4] Seigniorage is the difference between costs of production and distribution and face value.

gold and money. However, proponents of the Canadian coin program successfully argued that the issuance of gold coins would help dispose of surplus supplies of gold with no adverse impact on the commodity markets.

COMMEMORATIVE MEDALS AND STAMPS

Since the earliest days of the Republic, it has been the practice of both the Congress and the Executive branch to recognize the outstanding achievements of individuals by the issuance of national medals in their honor. This practice was codified in the Coinage Act of 1873, when Congress specifically authorized the Mint to design and produce medals of "national character." However, it was only in the early 1950s that the Congress adopted the practice of commemorating events or individuals worthy of national recognition through the issuance of national medals rather than special commemorative coins. National medals have no monetary characteristics and are not part of the nation's coinage system.

Medal programs may be privately or publicly sponsored. A government-operated medal program could be patterned after that of the American Revolution Bicentennial Administration (ARBA), established by Congress to coordinate the commemoration of the 200th anniversary of the nation. Congress authorized ARBA to issue a series of commemorative medals for the Bicentennial. Congress also authorized ARBA to use the funds raised from the sale of the commemorative medals for matching grants supporting various Bicentennial projects.

Under the 1972 authorizing legislation, the medals were produced by the Bureau of the Mint for ARBA on a full cost-reimbursable basis. The Mint packaged the medals and assisted ARBA in their distribution. The Mint also mailed out annual announcements on the availability of medals to numismatic customers, processed order cards, handled the receipt of funds, and shipped the medals to customers. ARBA assumed major responsibility for medal advertising in major national publications, both on a paid and public service basis. Under current Congressional prohibition, no other national medal made for public sale may contain any gold. Therefore, the gold medals offered by ARBA to the public at prices ranging from $100 to $4,000 are of special significance.

A privately minted series of medals could be developed according to a plan outlined by the Franklin Mint. Themes suggested range from the American Gold Medal winners to designs reflecting host countries leading up to Lake Placid, New York. The Mint also suggested that a design competition throughout the U.S. would encourage entries from both professionals and amateurs on a theme appropriate to the Olympics. The winning design would be interpreted on medals by Franklin Mint sculptors.

Consideration might also be given to the initiation of a stamp program whereby the U.S. Postal Service would issue stamps commemorating the Olympics every four years on first day covers. Only philatelic packages having a sales price of $1.00 or more should be considered.

Potential Benefits

A private program such as the Franklin Mint proposal faces few constraints, assuming sufficient public interest exists. A Federally authorized commemorative medal program designed around amateur sports would apparently present no major obstacle either. In fact, Presidents historically have recommended medals while vetoing commemorative coin proposals. National medals also could realize significant revenues. Since the beginning of its program in 1972, through September 1976, the ARBA Bicentennial Medal Program has sold a total of 5.6 million commemorative medals, with a gross receipt of over $42 million and a net of over $18 million. The Franklin Mint projects potential royalties of between $250,000 and $500,000 as a planning guideline for its proposed programs.

Philatelic stamps resulted in revenues of $6.3 million to the Canadian Olympic Organizing Committee. The U.S. Postal Service will assist organizations in producing first day covers by cancelling stamps on covers provided by the organization. (Each cancellation of a first day cover means the Postal Service has sold a stamp without having to handle an extra piece of mail. Further, there is a five-cent charge for each cancellation after the first one hundred.)

Potential Barriers

All things considered, commemorative medal programs have been given a low priority by the Commission because potential revenues are considered too small in relation to the cost of administering them. In addition, considering results of past medal programs, a lack of public enthusiasm is a strong possibility. In 1960, Congress authorized 500,000 medals to commemorate the Century 21 International Exposition in Seattle, Washington, but only 150,000 were manufactured and it is not known exactly how many of these were actually sold. In 1966, 100,000 medals were authorized to commemorate Hemisfair '68 in San Antonio, Texas; but, because of apparent lack of demand, no more than 30,000 were manufactured. Finally, in 1973, 750,000 medals were authorized for the International Exposition in Seattle, Washington; only 40,000 were actually produced, and these were manufactured and marketed by a private company.

Market testing and assessment are necessary requirements for a successful commemorative medal/

stamp program. Cautious minting is also advised to prevent potential medal surpluses. It might also be expected that resistance from the postal establishment would surface with any recommendation for a commemorative stamp program.

EXCISE TAXES

An excise tax on tickets to sporting events has been proposed as a potential source of funding for amateur sports. A survey of attendance statistics, ticket prices, and gate receipts was conducted and tax revenues from those events were projected. Treasury and legislative branch officials were interviewed to determine potential barriers to legislation in this area, and a paper summarizing the background and feasibility of excise taxes was prepared by the Office of Tax Analysis, Department of the Treasury.

The Federal Government has not taxed admissions since 1965, but the history of admission taxation dates back to the Revenue Act of 1917 which taxed general admissions to sporting events and "any other place" charging admission at a rate of 1 cent for every 10 cents or fraction thereof of the amount charged. Charitable events and events costing less than 5 cents (10 cents for shows, rides, or other amusements) were exempt. The liability for the tax was on the person making the payment and the charge for collecting and remitting the tax was on the person receiving the payment. By the time the tax was repealed in 1965, it had gone through numerous revisions and was at a rate of 1 cent for each 10 cents or major fraction of the admission charge in excess of $1.00.

Allocation of specific excise tax revenues for designated purposes has not been a Federal tradition. In only five current situations are excise tax revenues so used:

1) The Pittman-Robertson Act of 1937 taxes manufacturers' sales of firearms, shells, cartridges, and, subsequently, pistols, revolvers, and bows and arrows. Revenues are allocated to "The Federal Aid to Wildlife Restoration Fund." Revenues from this tax in FY 1975 were $63 million.

2) The Dingell-Johnson Act of 1950 taxes manufacturers' sales of fishing rods, reels, etc. and allocates revenues to the states for sports fishing restoration and management projects. Revenues from this tax in FY 1975 were $22 million.

3) The Highway Revenue Act of 1956 taxes a number of aspects of motor vehicle operation including motor fuels. Revenues go to the Highway Trust Fund to aid states in highway construction or mass transit costs. This act has a set life-span which has been amended to last through 1979. Revenues from this tax in FY 1975 were $5.9 billion.

4) The Land and Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965 taxes fuels used by motorboats. Revenues are allocated to the Land and Water Conservation Fund which pays for Federal and state acquisitions of land and water areas and their development for recreational purposes. Revenues from this tax in FY 1975 were $29 million.

5) The Airport and Airway Revenue Act of 1970 taxes aspects of air transportation, and allocates revenues to the Airport and Airway Trust Fund for Federal aid for airport construction and to pay for certain costs of the Federal airways system. Revenues from this tax in FY 1975 were $290 million.

The Commission conducted a telephone and mail survey (see Table VI on following pages) of organizations likely to draw considerable crowds to their events and likely to keep records on attendance. It should be noted that only professional, collegiate, and club sports are represented in this survey; high schools are not included. Most of the revenues listed in the survey are projections. Sports organizations (especially the pros) were generally reluctant to reveal their revenue. These projections were made by multiplying attendance by the average ticket price. In most cases, the average ticket price was supplied by a knowledgeable person within the sport. However, in a few instances, the Commission staff had to make an estimate (denoted by an asterisk) because persons involved in the sport could not or would not make such estimates. Thus, the accuracy of the revenue projections depends largely upon the accuracy of the average ticket price. In general, however, the data depicted are believed to be accurate enough to be acceptable for preliminary planning purposes.

Review of material collected revealed the following:

— Based on the survey, a tax on tickets to all sporting events could produce considerable revenue: for the next quadrennial, $48 million at 1%, $244 million at 5%, and $488 million at 10%.

— Using a second projection formula employing ticket prices as a basis with a graduated tax, it can be estimated that from $82 million to $170 million could be collected for the next quadrennial.

— Professional sports draw an estimated 79% of total attendance and account for 73% of total revenues, according to figures provided by professional sports and projected by Commission staff. Based on a Department of Commerce estimate of $1.5 billion annual ticket sales, these sports account for 60% of total revenues.

TABLE VI

Results of PCOS Survey of Attendance Figures and Revenues for Professional, Collegiate and Club Events

Sport		*Professional*	*Collegiate*	*Club*	*Total*
Baseball:	Attendance	$37,651,522	$ 94,955		$ 37,746,477
	Revenues	97,036,882	180,188	I.N.A.	97,217,070
	Average Tkt. Price	$2.50	$2.00		$2.57
	Tkt. Price Range	$.85-7.10	$1-3		$2-2.50
Basketball:	Attendance	11,595,060	20,785,555		32,380,613
	Revenues	90,744,772	76,137,937	I.N.A.	166,882,709
	Average Tkt. Price	$7.83	$3.36		$5.15
	Tkt. Price Range	(avg) $6-8.50	(avg) $3-5		(avg) $3.66-7.30
Boxing:	Attendance	900,000		59,195	959,195
	Revenues	14,250,000	N.A.	343,607	14,593,607
	Average Tkt. Price	$15.80		$2.80	$15.21
	Tkt. Price Range	(avg) $10-20		$4-8.45	$5.80-$15.80
Football:	Attendance	13,944,317	32,388,462		46,332,779
	Revenues	115,243,643	218,761,111	I.N.A.	334,004,754
	Average Tkt. Price	$8.26	$6.75		$7.21
	Tkt. Price Range	(avg) $4-12	$4-10		$6.75-8.26
Golf:	Attendance	2,695,547	2,274		2,697,821
	Revenues	26,955,470	14,018	I.N.A.	26,969,483
	Average Tkt. Price	$10	$6.16		$10
	Tkt. Price Range	$5-15 daily $20-50 weekly			$5-15 $5-15
Greyhound Racing:	Attendance	16,921,990			16,921,990
	Revenues	13,537,592	N.A.	N.A.	13,537,592
	Average Tkt. Price	$.80			$.80
	Tkt. Price Range	$.50-1.50			$.50-1.50
Auto Racing:	Attendance	47,500,000			47,500,000
	Revenues	237,500,000	N.A.	N.A.	237,500,000
	Average Tkt. Price	$5			$5
	Tkt. Price Range	$1.50-6 small events $5-50 major			$1.50-6; $5-50
Horse Racing:	Attendance	79,251,634			79,251,634
	Revenues	164,844,840	N.A.	N.A.	164,844,840
	Average Tkt. Price	*$2.08			$2.08
	Tkt. Price Range	$1-5			$1-5
Gymnastics:	Attendance		10,349		10,349
	Revenues	N.A.	35,552	I.N.A.	35,552
	Average Tkt. Price		$3.44		$3.44
	Tkt. Price Range		$2-9		$2-9
Hockey:	Attendance	11,009,558	6,349,696		17,359,254
	Revenues	72,701,112	22,769,618	I.N.A.	95,470,730
	Average Tkt. Price	$6.60	*$3.60		$5.50
	Tkt. Price Range	(avg) 3.89-7.15	$3-4		$3.60-6.60
Skating:	Attendance	7,000,000		75,500	7,075,500
	Revenues	34,000,000	N.A.	628,000	34,628,000
	Average Tkt. Price	$4.86		$8.32	$4.89
	Tkt. Price Range	$2.50-6.50		10-40 season $3-7.50 (indiv)	$4.86-8.32
Soccer:	Attendance	1,808,606	52,868	2,500,000	4,361,474
	Revenues	7,000,000	79,700	N.A.	7,079,700
	Average Tkt. Price	$3.87	$1.50	N.A.	$3.75
	Tkt. Price Range	$3-9	$1-2	N.A.	$1.50-3.87

I.N.A. — Information not available
N.A. — Not applicable
***Estimate by PCOS Staff**

TABLE VI (continued)

Results of PCOS Survey of Attendance Figures and Revenues for Professional, Collegiate and Club Events

Sport		*Professional*	*Collegiate*	*Club*	*Total*
Tennis:	Attendance	1,585,815	11,000	N.A.	1,596,815
	Revenues	7,863,935	34,760		7,933,455
	Average Tkt. Price	$4.96	$3.16		$4.97
	Tkt. Price Range	$4-11			$3.16-4.97
Track & Field:	Attendance	I.N.A.	24,848	I.N.A.	24,848
	Revenues		142,200		$142,200
	Average Tkt. Price		$5.72		$5.72
	Tkt. Price Range		$4-8		$4-8
Volleyball:	Attendance	131,742	5,514	I.N.A.	137,256
	Revenues	395,226	24,714		$419,940
	Average Tkt. Price	$3	$4.48		$3.06
	Tkt. Price Range	$2-4	$3-5		$3-4.50
Wrestling:	Attendance	3,500,000	128,438	I.N.A.	3,628,438
	Revenues	24,500,000	452,707		$ 24,952,707
	Average Tkt. Price	$7	$3.52		$6.88
	Tkt. Price Range	$4-7 (avg) up to $20	$1-5		$3.50-7.00
Totals:	Attendance	235,495,891	59,853,959	2,634,695	297,984,443
	Revenues	$892,377,472	$318,632,555	$971,607	$1,228,206,344
	Average Tkt. Price	$3.78	$5.32	$7.21	$4.12
	Tkt. Price Range	$.80-15.80		0-8.50	$.80-15.21

I.N.A. — Information not available
N.A. — Not applicable
*Estimate by PCOS Staff

— Three collegiate sports (basketball, football, and hockey) account for 99% of all college attendance and 95% of total amateur attendance. Table VII depicts the relative distribution of attendance and revenues from professional, collegiate, and club events.

Potential Benefits

The major benefit of an excise tax on tickets to sporting events would be the revenue that could be allocated to amateur sports; estimates range from $48 million to $488 million for the next quadrennial. Revenues from the former Federal excise tax on all admissions ranged from a low of $1.5 million in 1932 to a high of $329.9 million in 1947; in the last year of the tax, 1965, collections were $52.0 million.

Past experience indicates that administration of such a tax would be relatively simple and the revenue generated could be greater than that from a fixed Federal allocation of funds.

Potential Barriers

Although an excise tax on sporting events tickets would seem to be a lucrative source of revenue for amateur sports, some doubts are raised about forcing a tax on the sporting public and creating a hardship on sport franchises. Further, the Treasury Department, the past five Presidents, and the past several Congresses have generally been against designating revenue sources for specific purposes. With few exceptions, these taxes have been removed from the books or allowed to expire.

In any case, one criterion for collecting a tax to pay for a facility or service provided by the Government is that this should be done only when the facility or service is for the benefit of those paying the tax. Requiring spectators at sports events to help fund amateur sports does not meet this criterion. If the purpose of aid to amateur sports is to improve physical fitness in the U. S. or to develop outstanding athletes to represent the U. S. in international competition, then financing from general tax revenues might be more appropriate than doing so from the proceeds of professional sports.

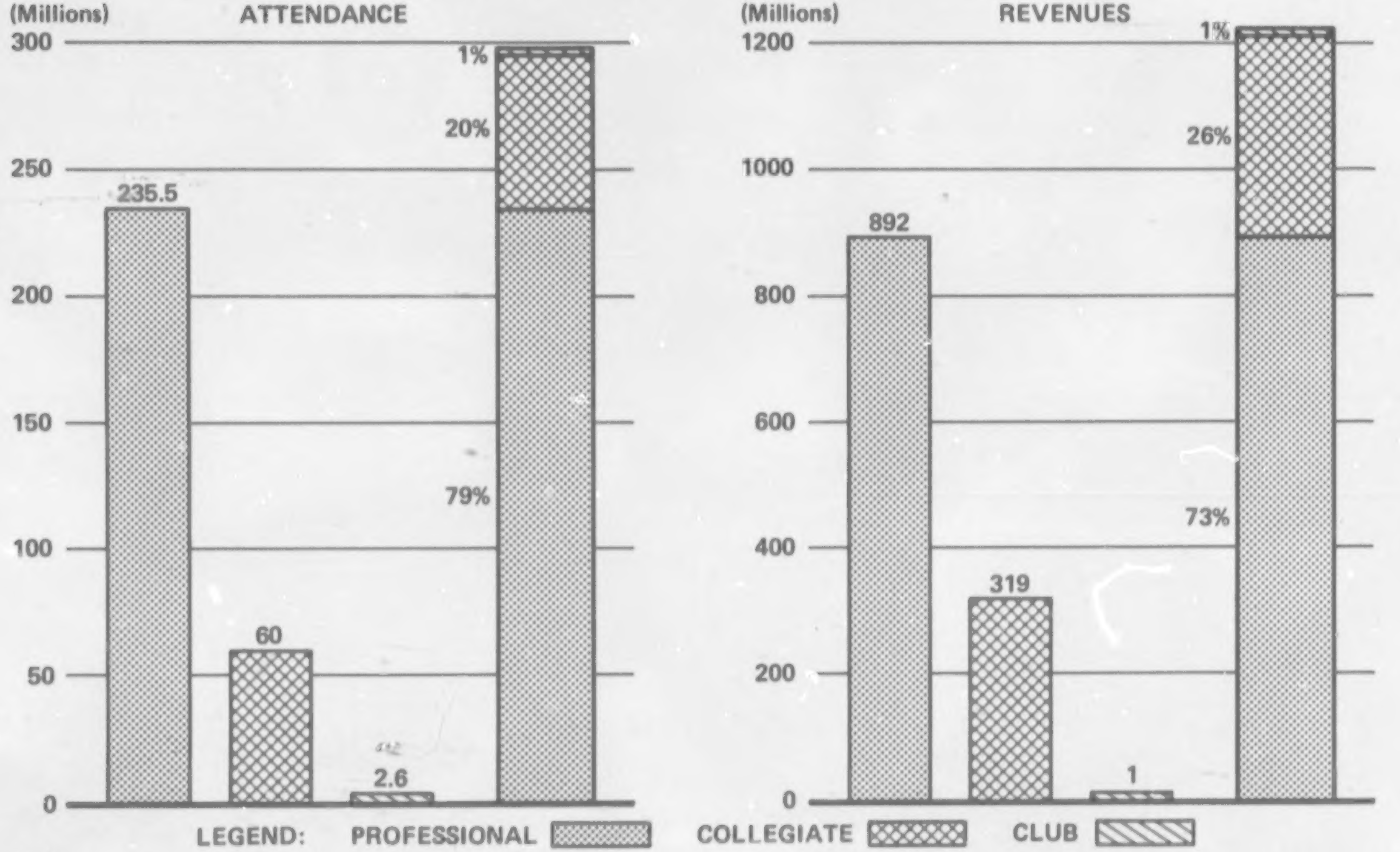
There is concern within the Federal Government over earmarking revenues for specific purposes before their collection because this practice destroys budgetary flexibility. It is also unlikely that Congress will allocate public funds to a private organization without some determination of how those funds should be spent.

FEDERAL PROGRAMS

Although the Federal Government spends a substantial amount of money each year in areas relevant to Olympic sports, no Federal program has as its planning goal the specific support of amateur athletic competition. The programs discussed in this section are designed and administered to support the objectives of the parent agency or department. Although funds theoretically are available to

TABLE VII

RELATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTENDANCE AT AND REVENUES FROM PROFESSIONAL, COLLEGIATE AND CLUB EVENTS



amateur athletics through these programs, effective use of these funds often is precluded by the intricacies of the programs themselves, the specialized nature of their legislative and policy goals, and the priority assigned to Olympic/amateur sports by state and local communities receiving this public funding.

The following Departments appear to be the best potential source of additional funds and/or program support for amateur sports:

—Department of Agriculture

—Department of Commerce

—Department of Housing and Urban Development,

—Department of the Interior, and

—Community Services Administration.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

—Downhill and Cross-Country Skiing Programs

—Community Facilities Loan Program

The Department of Agriculture appears to be the most appropriate Federal agency to provide support for two Olympic sports, alpine and Nordic skiing, because it controls land suitable for slopes and trails. Although neither sport is a separate budget item, both are supported through the general operating budget of the Forest Service.

The Department of Agriculture Community Facilities Loan Program has as its goals the development of rural communities, income development opportunities for farmers, and cessation of out migration of population from rural areas. A small portion of the total loans is used to support Olympic type sport activities. Collectively, the above programs spent approximately $20,250,000 for sports/recreation in fiscal year 1975.

The Downhill Skiing Franchise Program currently supports a limited number of operational ski areas, but is strongly opposed by environmental groups. The Cross-Country Skiing Franchise Program, on the other hand, although only recently begun, has opened many sites. It creates no environmental hazards, requires minimal capital investment, and is easily administered.

The Community Facility Loan Program is intended to provide financing for essential community facilities in rural areas with populations of less than 10,000. Although these funds can be used for recreational purposes, there is much competition for funds, and states normally give priority to public safety and health projects in public buildings.

Potential Benefits

Potential combined expenditures for recreation/sports facilities from these programs are projected to be $40,375,000. Cross-Country Skiing Franchise Programs are expanding rapidly since trails cause only minimal environmental disturbance. Adequate Federal funds are available to support cross country skiing and Forest Service representatives have indicated a willingness to support expanded services. Since cross country skiing as well as downhill skiing are franchise operation programs, Federal Government investment, aside from land provision, is relatively minimal. Finally, there are no known legislative barriers to the Cross Country Skiing Program.

Potential Barriers

Athletic organizations contemplating access to these funds must recognize certain legislative and policy characteristics of these programs. For environmental reasons the Forest Service has imposed a moratorium, of indefinite duration, on new downhill skiing slopes in Vermont and the Northwest states. Environmental groups, such as the Sierra Club, are lobbying effectively to contain further development of downhill slopes. Downhill skiing also imposes a considerable financial burden on the franchise operator to develop and maintain the ski area. Amateur sports organizations interested in seeking relief from the downhill skiing moratorium should lobby for the establishment of objective, consistent criteria in the preparation of Environmental Impact Statements.

Amateur sports organizations must also be cognizant of Community Facility Loan Program requirements restricting loans to rural communities and of the fact that loan applicants must demonstrate an inability to secure adequate financing elsewhere on reasonable terms. Loan security and repayment requirements are stringent under this program. Loans are made at a 5% interest rate which amounts to a government subsidy of between 2.5% and 3.5%. As a consequence of increased austerity, the program is not now expanding. Any improvement in this area will require amateur sports organizations to support an amendment to lift the 5% interest rate on facility loans. Competition for program funds is great; most rural communities assign recreation a low priority because of the lack of essential services. Therefore, amateur sports organizations must organize at the state and local level to influence funding priorities in support of developing sports facilities.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

—Bureau of Outdoor Recreation Program

The Department of the Interior, through the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, controlled $301,349,000 in overall public funds in FY 1975 and targeted approximately $138,000,000 for public outdoor sports/recreation. Salient characteristics of efforts funded by the Bureau and applicable to amateur athletics are that facilities must be open to the public, outdoors, and designed for recreation.

The Bureau of Outdoor Recreation is responsible for developing a nationwide recreation plan to guide Federal, state, and local governments, and the private sector in identifying and meeting future recreation needs of America. The first plan was published in 1973. The Bureau coordinates plans and activities for Federal programs involving outdoor recreation interests and reviews major Federal actions or legislation affecting outdoor resources or opportunities.

Potential Benefits

Potential expenditures for Bureau of Outdoor Recreation facilities and public outdoor recreation activities are projected to be $150,000,000. A key program is the Land and Water Conservation Fund, which provides for the acquisition of lands for Federally administered recreation areas as well as for matching grants for state recreation planning and state and local land acquisition development. Legislation is currently before the Congress advocating a 10% to 25% increase in Bureau of Outdoor Recreation and Land and Water Conservation Fund appropriations for enclosure-use. In addition, it has been recommended that the geographic spread of areas eligible for enclosure funds be broadened and that local matching funds be permitted to be used for any purpose. Enactment of this recommended legislation could be very beneficial to amateur sports organizations.

Potential Barriers

Potential projects are initiated at the local level and funding priorities are established at the state level. An organized effort must be made to effect changes in existing legislation to allow Federal funds from another agency, such as the Farmers Home Administration, to be used as matching funds, rather than restricting the source of such funds to local or private sources. A change like this would make available more Federal money for amateur sports activities. Support should also be given to the previously discussed amendment that would allow additional funding for facility enclosure.

Amateur sports organizations should work in conjunction with applicable state agencies to develop the comprehensive outdoor recreation plans required prior to disbursement of monies under the Land and Water Conservation Fund Program. If a cooperative effort could be extended to the national level by some form of central sports organization, it would be possible under existing legislation and funding to develop public outdoor facilities which meet Olympic specifications.

DEPARTMENT OF HOUSING & URBAN DEVELOPMENT

—Community Development Grants

The Department of Housing and Urban Development, through the Community Block Grant Program, spent approximately $59,000,000 on sports/recreational facilities and services during FY 1975. Although this is a substantial amount, it represents only 2.3% of the monies available to communities under this program.

The Community Block Grant Program provides potential funding opportunities for amateur sports programs, particularly those in major metropolitan areas. Athletic organizations should participate on councils which establish the immediate and long-term development plans required under this program. (Neither Federal nor state intervention is permitted with respect to setting local priorities.) Recreation facilities may be funded under all aspects of the program.

Potential Benefits

Potential expenditures for grants emanating from this program are projected to be $96,000,000. This is a new Federal program, and the funds still available suggest that well-coordinated project requests will likely be approved if they have the support of the communities affected.

Potential Barriers

A higher level state or national amateur sports organization must ensure that all other Federal funding sources for recreational programs have been exhausted. To gain access to available funds, sports organizations must be well organized, particularly at the community level, and must attempt to reorder program priorities to elevate sports as a major consideration. Amateur sports organizations should also be aware that stadiums and sports arenas are not eligible for funding under this program.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

—Public Works Program

The Department of Commerce, through the Public Works programs of the Economic Development Administration (EDA), spent $165,500,000 in FY 1975 on tourism and community activities, of which approximately $1,745,000 was dedicated to sports/recreation. These figures, although substantial, represent only 1.6% of the total funds available through the EDA during FY 1975.

Financial assistance is presently available from the EDA to support construction of major sport facilities. Representatives of the Office of Public Works expressed a willingness to support a consolidated plan to improve amateur sports facilities. Sports complexes similar to the one being developed at Lake Placid, capable of generating income to meet program requirements, might be constructed on a regional basis.

Athletic organizations, such as the USOC, NCAA, and AAU, could play a major role in making funds available for major regional sports complexes by generating support at the local/state level. They could also help prepare income-producing proposals for grants development that coincide with Olympic/amateur sport program requirements.

Potential Benefits

Potential expenditures for recreation/sports facilities by the Public Works Program are projected to be $2,000,000. While there are certain restrictions on the EDA with respect to economic conditions in the areas where it provides grants, a strong possibility exists to use EDA funds to construct regional sports complexes.

Potential Barriers

Program priorities must be established at the local community level, making necessary close grass roots relationships between athletic organizations and local planning groups. In addition, Public Works Programs require proof that facility construction will generate income and improve income level and employment in the community.

COMMUNITY SERVICES ADMINISTRATION

—National Youth Sports Program

The National Youth Sports Program, administered by the Community Services Administration (CSA), provided $6,000,000 of direct support during FY 1975 to sports activities for disadvantaged youth in some 127 colleges throughout the U. S.

The National Youth Sports Program began in 1969 under the Office of Economic Opportunity. It was under the authority of the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports (PCPFS) from 1969 until 1974, when the CSA took over contract monitoring.

CSA interacts with the Department of Agriculture, which provides funds for meals for children participating in the program. Activities also have been coordinated with PCPFS to avoid duplication of effort and assure continuity in program administration.

Potential Benefits

Potential near-term appropriation levels for the National Youth Sports Program are estimated to be $12,000,000. Funding depends on annual action by the Congress, and, if timely, can be fully used. Though there is significant competition for funds, an increased appropriation could be used constructively to expand the number of colleges providing services.

Potential Barriers

A significant barrier in FY 1975 was the lateness of Congressional appropriations. Sluggish Congressional action from year to year on this program is likely to continue as a barrier. Further difficulties arise in that projects funded by this program must be located in high poverty areas and must be convenient to transportation. Staff must be professionally trained, and a ratio of one to fifteen maintained. Participating colleges must have first class facilities and equipment for sports and must have a swimming pool. Also, no consortium of colleges will be funded as a project unit. Finally, critics of the program have argued that the cost per benefactor is far too high to derive any appreciable benefit.

PRESIDENT'S COUNCIL ON PHYSICAL FITNESS AND SPORTS

The President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports (PCPFS) is nearing the start of its 21st year. In two decades, it has evolved from an organization concerned exclusively with young people to an organization concerned with the physical fitness and the sports participation habits of all Americans.

In Executive Order 11562 (amended October 1976), the President directed the Secretary of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (DHEW) to develop, coordinate, and implement a nine-point national program of physical fitness and sports. PCPFS is presently in the Department of Health; formerly, it was in the Office of Human Development, DHEW.

PCPFS is not a source of funds since it provides no financial assistance to state, local, or private groups, but operates primarily through suggestion, education, and persuasion. Nevertheless, it has been included in this discussion primarily because of its responsibilities in the areas of physical fitness and sports, and because of the advocacy and coordinating role it might play in the future between Federal Programs and the need of amateur/Olympic sports bodies and authorities.

PCPFS's budget for FY 1977 is $819,000, allocated for staff salaries and other operating costs. In discussions with the Commission, PCPFS staff indicated that they have used the Council's annual budget as a catalyst to stimulate action by institutions, organizations, and industry. The Council has often arranged with the private sector or with other Federal agencies necessary financial support for desirable programs. According to PCPFS spokesmen, during the past four years support for projects proposed and supervised by PCPFS amounted to approximately $145 million.

Through a number of special co-sponsored projects, PCPFS has concentrated on the development of certain Olympic sports. Among the more significant of these projects are:

- —*Physical Exercise Pays (PEP)-Travelers*—Extensive physical fitness project emphasizing family fitness.
- —*"Club 15" -Campbell Soup*—Project emphasizing the importance of regular exercise and good nutrition for teenage girls.
- —*Prudential Films* — Films and other motivational materials pertaining to sports.
- —*Explorer Olympics*—A six-day event in which more than 2,000 youths participate in 25 sports.
- —*High School Motivational Materials* — A program for high schools designed to develop leadership qualities, physical fitness, and sports skills through mass participation in physical education and athletics.
- —*Army Champs* — A project designated to popularize the sport of team handball and to improve the physical fitness of youth participating in that sport.
- —*Sports Medicine* — Sports Medicine Research Service. A scientific committee composed of representatives of the American College of Sports Medicine, AMA, USOC, National Library of Medicine, and the PCPFS is determining types of information to be included in a bibliographic service.

Through consultative technical assistance, PCPFS encourages amateur "sports for all" by working with public and quasi-public authorities, sports governing bodies, and federations.

Potential Benefits

A liaison is needed between the executive branch of the Federal Government and designated amateur sports organizations. The PCOS has noted the success of PCPFS in stimulating elements of the private sector. It is conceivable that the Executive Order governing PCPFS operations could be modified to expand its responsibilities to include liaison with designated amateur sports organizations. PCPFS could also serve as liaison to any subcabinet-level committee that might be established to coordinate Federal action within existing programs. From the standpoint of expertise and stature, PCPFS is in an ideal position to perform this function.

Potential Barriers

Factors affecting the potential PCPFS liaison role are:

- —Whether or not PCPFS will be extended by the new administration;
- —Assuming the Council is extended, whether a modification to its present Executive Order responsibilities would occur;
- —Whether the PCPFS budget would receive the necessary increase;
- —Whether PCPFS can maintain its good working relations with all prominent amateur sports organizations if it were to undertake responsibility as a liaison and/or coordinator; and
- —Whether the overall goals and objectives of the Department of Health, under which PCPFS is located, may conflict with PCPFS is located, may conflict with PCPFS goals and objectives.

OTHER FEDERAL PROGRAMS

The following agencies and departments also can make a contribution, to Olympic/amateur sports:

- —Department of State through the sponsorship of international sports exchanges under the Mutual Education Exchange Act;
- —Parts of Department of Health, Education, and Welfare not already mentioned; and
- —Consumer Product Safety Commission.

Presently, the contributions made by these organizations are severely limited. Reasons for the limitations include:

- —Several sports-related programs administered by these departments have low funding levels;
- —Department policy is not particularly oriented toward domestic amateur sports;
- —Research conducted by the department is long-term; and
- —National priorities dictate that other disciplines, such as reading and writing in the Office of Education, far outweigh interest in sports.

The Consumer Product Safety Commission is investigating various products used daily by Americans, some of which—from swimming pools to snow skis — are relevant to Olympic sports. Results of this research can improve materials and specifications for future competition.

An increase in funding also would enable the Commission to increase research into sport-related injuries (products funded at $4,000 to $5,000 cannot effectively support more than several weeks of study). Presently, data concerning sports safety are not collected or disseminated in a satisfactory manner. Incentives are needed to stimulate data collection through amateur and professional sports organizations and to disseminate findings systematically to major Government and private organizations.

Such data could prevent injuries by modifying specifications to correct an identified health hazard. As a result of current reorganization it is likely that the Consumer Product Safety Commission will direct more attention to sports-related injuries.

The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare provides training funds for physical education in elementary and secondary schools. It also has sponsored innovative educational practices in sports programs replicated in schools throughout the country. The Department has established a Women's Program to assist in the interpretation of Title IX and to administer grants to support physical education activities associated with educational equality.

The Department does not now direct any major efforts toward amateur sports, primarily because of the low priority attached to sports by primary and secondary school officials. Athletic organizations could, at the local level, assist in developing local school board policies that would direct more attention and funding toward those Olympic sports that correlate to the physical education and character development objectives of the local community.

Review and analysis clearly indicate that the potential exists to fund initiation and/or development of programs oriented toward amateur sports. However, a concentrated effort on the part of amateur sports bodies would be required to identify, organize, communicate, coordinate, and negotiate their individual needs with pertinent Federal, state, and local agencies and groups.

MISCELLANEOUS PUBLIC PROGRAMS

Several types of public funding have been recommended as possible sources of revenue for amateur sports, including:

—Tax Check-Off,

—Tax Refund Contributions,

—Tax Amendments,

—Direct Appropriations, and

—Revenue Sharing.

Tax Check Off and Refunds

The Commission believes that American taxpayers could be given the opportunity to contribute to amateur sports either through allocating a portion of any payment due the government (check-off), or a portion of any refund due the taxpayer. The refund plan differs from the check-off plan in that the former allows taxpayers to allocate private funds while the latter allows allocation of public funds. Some $31.9 million from tax check-offs was raised for the Federal Election Fund from returns filed in 1974. Of 83 million returns, approximately 21 million donated to the fund. In 1974, there were approximately 64 million tax refunds totaling $25 billion. Under the refund plan taxpayers would allow the IRS to deduct an amount for amateur sports from their tax refund.

Potential Benefits

Considering the $31.9 million collected through the tax check-off for the Federal Election Fund in 1974, a check-off program for amateur sports appears to be a viable source of funding. Donors ordinarily reluctant to contribute directly might be encouraged to support amateur sports through their tax dollars. Donations from tax refunds are considered even more attractive than the tax check-off. The Commission estimates that voluntary tax refund contributions could raise more than the approximately $32 million collected from the election tax check-off system in 1974. It should be noted that these types of proposals have generated considerable interest in the general public. Following the Winter Olympic Games in Innsbruck and continuing to the present, the President, the Congress and this Commission received a large number of communications advocating these types of plans to support our amateur athletes.

Potential Barriers

The major barrier to a tax check-off program would be Government apprehension about setting a precedent for special interest group funding activities. Also, an organization would have to be established and maintained to keep track of all transactions. Arguments against a program of tax-refund contributions are that it sets a bad precedent, that it would be an administrative burden on the Department of the Treasury, and that it might further confuse the already complex Federal tax forms.

Tax Amendments

Changes to the Tax Code relating to individual and corporate donations to amateur sports could accelerate the growth and development of amateur sports in the U.S. Even minor revisions to the Tax

Code have resulted in a significant boost for amateur sports. For example, a clarification of Section 501c (3) of the Tax Code through legislative action in 1976 will allow a number of amateur sports organizations to apply for previously denied tax exempt status. A companion piece of legislation, an amendment allowing a tax credit of up to $500 for expenses incurred by elite athletes in training for the Olympics, was removed from a larger tax reform bill in the House-Senate Conference in 1976.

Tax Code amendments appear to be a valid source of amateur sports revenues. Exemptions for athletes and their families could encourage potential Olympians who might otherwise be unable to afford to participate.

Potential Benefits

Regardless of the extent of coverage, this alternative represents a significant step in government assistance to amateur sport. The need is great and amendments such as these can greatly lessen the financial burdens of amateur sports organizations, the athletes and their parents. It also would make it easier for private individuals and institutions to contribute to amateur sports.

Potential Barriers

Amendments to the Tax Code are very difficult to get through Congress. A recent $500 proposed tax credit for elite athletes was removed from a tax reform bill.

Direct Appropriations

Congress may appropriate funds to meet general or specific financial requirements in amateur sports. However, direct Federal funding translates into some degree of Federal control which may be unacceptable to the American public. It is doubtful that Congress would authorize a continuing funding program, but it might consider a one-time appropriation for items such as construction of needed athletic facilities.

To obtain Congressional approval of a direct appropriation, the public and the amateur sports groups would need to prove to Congress that it is a priority worthy of Congress' attention. Two approaches are:

—A proposal might be made that money be appropriated on the basis of matching funds donated by the private sector; and

—A proposal might also point out that almost $400 million is now spent on projects related to recreation in other government programs (see above). An additional $50 to $75 million could be targeted for special projects not presently covered, e.g., speed skating rinks, ski jumps, etc.

Potential Benefits

Depending on how much is appropriated, great amounts of funds could be allocated to amateur sports. It will be necessary, however, to demonstrate that amateur sports are sufficiently worthy of this type of support particularly when compared with other national funding needs. It is feasible that direct appropriations could contribute significantly to the construction of amateur sports facilities. Private donations also could be encouraged if a matching fund program were instituted.

Potential Barriers

The greatest barrier to a direct appropriations method of funding is the implied Federal control of government-appropriated funds. It is doubtful that Congress would authorize a continuing appropriation of funds, but even a one-time authorization could be reduced to zero by the Appropriations Committees. It probably would be necessary to generate public support of such a measure, perhaps by recommending a matching-funds mechanism.

Revenue Sharing

The General Revenue Sharing Program provides approximately $6 billion per year to nearly 39,000 units of state and local government. Recipients need not file applications because funds are allocated according to census data and paid automatically each quarter. Under present law, general revenue sharing funds may be used by state governments for any purpose that complies with state law. Local governments may spend general revenue sharing funds for any capital project and/or for operating and maintaining programs in eight categories, one of which is recreation. This includes construction of sports facilities, acquisition of equipment, or operation and maintenance of recreation programs, provided these uses would be legal expenditures of the communities' own funds. Approximately $380 million was spent by state and local governments directly for recreation-related programs and activities.

Potential Benefits

Revenue sharing funds may be a huge untapped source of amateur sports funding. Approximately $380 million was spent on recreation-related programs and activities in FY 1975, 69% of which provided funds for capital improvements, including facilities for athletic events. Amateur sports organizations need to be made aware of the availability of these funds.

Potential Barriers

The major barrier to a revenue sharing program is that these funds are allocated at state and local levels, making it difficult to establish a method for obtaining such funds. It is conceivable that an existing agency might be charged with advising sports organizations on how to obtain revenue sharing funds in their communities.

NATIONAL SPORTS LOTTERY (NSL)

One reason the Commission studied lotteries is that other Western nations generate considerable funds for amateur sports through a sports lottery. These countries include West Germany, Italy and Brazil. In addition, Canada financed some of the cost of the 1976 Olympic Games through a lottery.

A lottery is a form of gambling in which chances to share in a distribution of prizes are sold. The essential elements are an investment by a player, chance, and a prize. State lotteries in the U. S. return up to 50% of revenues in prizes, while 5-10% is distributed between administration and sales costs, and the profit (40-45% of the gross), goes to a fund or for a specific purpose.

It is important to note that only 13 states operate lotteries; constitutions in all other states specifically prohibit them. The 13 U. S. state lotteries are established by state law and operate under the fiscal branch of the government. The control board, usually appointed by the Governor or the State Senate, establishes the type and number of games, the denomination of tickets, and the frequency of drawings. In certain states, the commissioners manage the lottery. Lotteries generally have an undefined life span.

The Federal Government has the power, under the Interstate Commerce Clause of the U. S. Constitution, to create a national sports lottery. However, implementation of a national lottery raises a complex issue: whether the Congress can require each state to participate in the operation and maintenance of a national lottery program. The Commission on the Review of National Policy Toward Gambling has recommended that the Federal Government not become involved with the regulation of state lotteries. Nevertheless, an NSL, conducted in accordance with Congressional guidelines, could produce significant revenues.

Three options for conducting an NSL are discussed here. One approach is the enactment of Federal legislation to allow for the establishment of a national lottery; a Federal lottery sales force would operate in each state. Such an effort would be geared toward funding the national amateur sports program. On the basis of per capita information

TABLE VIII

Gross Revenue and Funds Available for Distribution
(Net Proceeds)

	Annual	
Lottery and Year Ending	*Gross Revenue**	*Net Proceeds**
Illinois 7/30/75	$144	$65
Massachusetts 12/31/75	$ 95	$39
Michigan 6/30/75	$142	$65
New Jersey 6/30/75	$ 78	$37
Ohio 5/31/76	$191	$76

*In millions

	Per Capita			
Lottery and Year Ending	*Net Income*	*Annual Ticket Sales*		*Awards*
		Unit Amount	*Unit Size*	
Illinois 7/30/75	$ 5.80	$25.88	$0.50	$ 5.82
Massachusetts 12/31/75	6.61	32.38	.50	7.31
Michigan 6/30/75	6.39	29.66	.50	6.89
New Jersey 6/30/75	4.38	21.00	.50	5.02
Ohio 5/31/76	7.10	—	—	7.99
TOTAL	$30.28			$33.03
AVERAGE	$ 6.06			$ 6.61

TABLE IX

Distribution of Operating Revenue

Lottery and Year Ending	*Categories (%)*				
	Prizes	*Net Profit*	*Sales Commission*	*Operating Expenses*	*Total*
Illinois 7/30/75	45.0	44.8	6.0	4.2	100.0
Massachusetts 12/31/75	45.1	40.4	5.0	9.5	100.0
Michigan 6/30/75	46.5	43.0	6.1	4.4	100.0
New Jersey 6/30/75	47.8	41.7	7.6	4.9	100.0
Ohio 5/31/76	45.0	40.1	5.4	9.5	100.0

from five state lotteries, the following amount could be generated by such a program.

—Per Capita Income — $6.06

—Total Population — 220 million

—Total Income per year — $1.3 billion

Tables VIII and IX reflect a summary financial analysis of these states.

Second, Congress could pass legislation allowing interstate sales of lottery tickets among states wishing to participate. This voluntary participation would overcome legal objections from states which do not allow lotteries. The 13 states which now allow lotteries contain 40% of the U. S. population, a large pool within which to encourage sales and award prizes. Anticipating participation of at least these 13 states, the potential income is estimated to be:

—Per capita income — $6.06

—Population (13 states) — 88 million

—Net Income per year — $533 million

A third approach not requiring Congressional action calls for sports organizations to initiate and sponsor a state lottery. For example, the USOC, representing an element of the sports community, could allow the use of the Olympic name and symbol by a state lottery. In return, the USOC might receive some agreed-to percentage of the net income from the lottery. Using 10%, and assuming participation from the 13 states now conducting lotteries, the USOC could raise $3.5 million per quadrennial.

As mentioned earlier, the Canadian Parliament authorized an Olympic lottery which operated from 1973 through August 1976. Proceeds were used to build facilities for the 1976 Olympics and to sponsor amateur sports and youth activities. A financial analysis of this effort follows in Table X.

Potential Benefits

Lotteries to benefit amateur sports could provide an estimated $3.5 million per quadrennial from special (e.g., Olympic) state lotteries, to $1.3 billion total income per year from a national lottery. Lotteries are popular in states now holding them; using lottery proceeds to help finance amateur sports could very well stimulate even greater participation. Options for conducting sports lotteries are quite flexible in terms of both implementation and operation. The thirteen existing state lotteries could be an operational base for the conduct of an NSL which, in turn, could benefit from existing lottery administrations. An alternative would be for an NSL to come under the direct control of the Department of the Treasury.

Potential Barriers

A major difficulty with the concept of a national sports lottery is that many citizens and most states object to gambling for moral and/or personal reasons. If Congress were to initiate NSL legislation, questions would likely arise regarding Congressional authority to override state constitutional provisions against lotteries. Operation and control of lotteries, whether nationwide, interstate, or intrastate, could pose additional problems. Sports lotteries operated through existing lotteries may have to vie with the latter for the same market. Distribution of profits could also pose a problem — should funds be invested locally or distributed on a national basis?

TABLE X

Financial Analysis of
Canadian Olympic Lottery
(1973-1976)

Summary of Financial Statements	
Gross Revenue	$149,004,000
Net Revenue Available for distribution	75,406,000
	Per Capita
Annual Ticket Sales	.635
Dollars Contributed	$6.36
Prizes Awarded	$2.30
Net Profit	3.31
Distribution of Operating Revenue	
Receipts from ticket sales are divided as follows:	
Category	*Distribution %*
Prize Money	36.2
Net Profit	49.3
Sales Discount	8.5
Operating Expenses	5.7
Bank Fee	.3
	100.0

PRIVATE SECTOR/CORPORATE PROGRAMS

PCOS staff met with key executives of several major U. S. corporations to discuss the involvement of the private/corporate sector in the funding of amateur sports. Corporations were interviewed to determine: 1) what they had done in the past to support amateur sports, 2) what they were currently doing and 3) what they might consider doing in the future. Discussion also focused on the need for a significant amount of new or additional funds, with an emphasis on generating the major portion of "continuing" funding primarily through private sector programs.

Private sector programs might be generated from "altruistic" corporate sources or be based on return on investment. The term "altruistic" corporate sources refers to corporate support through grants made by corporations either outright or through corporate foundations that many maintain. It also refers to any other corporate initiative that is not based on return on investment.

Findings

In general, the Commission found that corporations:

A. Perceive amateur sports organizations to be fraught with jurisdictional disputes and poor management. They especially believe current fund raising processes could be more effective;

B. Generally lack information concerning the needs in amateur athletics and the role business and industry can and should play. However, some are aware of the financial plights of individual athletes as a result of news stories;

C. Are willing to consider activity in amateur sports from an altruistic viewpoint as well as from a profit motive viewpoint;

D. View potential activity in amateur sport in varying ways, depending to some extent on the nature of the corporation (e.g., consumer vs. industrial products);

E. Do not clearly understand the concept of "broken-time" payments (i.e., allowing athletes time off from work to train, with pay). However, some are aware of a recent appeal, initiated by an executive of a major firm, encouraging corporate sponsorship of "broken-time" programs (about 70 firms have responded favorably). Corporate executives also do not understand how this is legal under sports amateur codes;

F. Feel the need for a major outside impetus to increase substantially the role of corporations in amateur sports;

G. Feel that if the chief executive officer of a corporation is motivated to engage the company in amateur sports activities such activity will begin;

H. Believe that sports administrators must plan effectively and carefully if they hope to evoke widespread corporate involvement and that programs must be tailored to the needs of each company or industry; and

I. Are of mixed opinions on the merit of image-building operations. They are generally cautious, but willing to be persuaded that there is potential return from sponsoring amateur sports.

Corporate executives find they have to balance two sets of expectations. They are held responsible by their stockholders for making profits and stimulating their companies' growth. They are also expected to contribute to the general welfare of the community in which they operate. In the latter "corporate citizen" role, executives report:

A. They are willing to contribute a few thousand dollars per year, but caution that contributions would always have to be measured against other worthwhile activities (e.g., contributions to the arts, United Fund, etc.);

B. Some are willing to hire athletes and give them time off with pay ("broken-time"). Some view this as altruistic activity while others see it as advantageous to the marketing/public affairs effort. A few expressed concern that "broken-time" programs could result in problems;

C. A few would consider corporate matching funds similar to those programs conducted for educational institutions;

D. Some have contributed in the past by donating resources (facilities, people, money), holding fund drives, and conducting sports programs for their employees.

As guardians of the stockholders' interests, executives:

A. Disagree on how best to stimulate corporate interest. This is largely due to the type of business involved. Some would tie such activity to a product while others to a program or an event;

B. Are not well informed about the profit potential which may exist through association with amateur sports, nor do they know how to go about sponsoring major programs;

C. Generally consider the development of these programs to be the responsibility of marketing or public affairs groups;

D. Believe corporations would want to begin programs gradually;

E. Due to budget planning cycles, see a one- to two-year lead time necessary before commitment of significant corporate funds to amateur sports programs; and

F. Prefer to consider programs with calculable returns.

THE HANDICAPPED IN SPORTS

Most Olympic sports enthusiasts in this country are aware that at the 1968 Olympic Games, Bill Toomey won the Gold Medal in the decathlon. Few people realize, however, that Bill Toomey is paralyzed in three fingers of his right hand and that for him, throwing a discus, putting a shot, and hurling a javelin present problems which no athlete in his class of competition normally has to face.

Most Americans can recall the remarkable performance of Tenley Albright in the 1956 Olympics, when she won the Gold Medal in figure skating. Few know, however, that she had polio when she was a child.

And few who saw him will forget the performances of the New Zealander, Murray Halberg, who became a world and Olympic champion in the 5,000m run, despite a withered arm.

The courage and determination of these gifted individuals who overcame serious physical handicaps to excel in areas demanding the ultimate in athletic performance, serve as examples for all of us. The lesson of their achievement is that in sports, as in every area of life, the desire to excel is within everyone.

Tragically, not all Americans who are handicapped[1] are able to overcome their infirmities and compete in the Olympic Games. Yet, for many, there is still the desire to compete, to perform to the best of their abilities, and to win. Fortunately, there are programs designed to meet their needs, programs which provide the opportunity to compete in athletics at the local, national and international level. To those who know little about the achievements of those who participate in these programs, the record is revealing, even extraordinary:

— Times of under two and one half hours have been achieved in marathons by competitors in wheelchairs;

— An amputee with no prosthetic device has high-jumped over six feet;

— A mentally retarded woman, age 70, participated in the 1975 International Special Olympics.

In a time when most Americans have accepted the premise that those with handicapping conditions have a right to a life of dignity and purpose, many of the blind, the deaf, those in wheelchairs, and the mentally retarded have learned how to ski, wrestle, bowl, climb mountains, dive, surf, play football and participate in virtually any activity in which their contemporaries take part. For them, the rewards are the same as those for anyone who takes part in sport and other recreational activities, and their achievement is equally satisfying.

At present, over 30 regional and national organizations sponsor or promote programs of athletics for nearly a million handicapped Americans. Some have programs more advanced than others, and a few have received more publicity than the rest. Yet each performs a valuable service for its constituency. It is largely through the efforts of these groups that the achievements note above have been made possible.

In spite of their good works, however, they are faced with serious problems in their efforts to develop programs and to attract more of the approximately 35 million handicapped Americans to athletics. Many of their problems are unique to the population they serve. Others, however, have a familiar ring. As with the rest of the amateur sports community, there are serious problems in funding the programs they sponsor. In addition, these organizations often find it difficult to assure their athletes adequate facilities designed to meet their particular needs. Attracting public attention to their efforts is often difficult.

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[1] For purposes of this report, the term "handicapped" is used synonymously with the word "disabled" to mean physically and/or mentally handicapped (i.e., deaf, visually impaired, wheelchair confined, orthopedically disabled, and mentally retarded). No categorical classification or definition is intended.

Effective coordination and communication among these organizations is needed, but seldom occurs. Although these organizations work in completely different areas, they are all involved in sports, and they can benefit by sharing views on mutual problems and concerns.

In spite of their problems, however, they continue to administer their activities, confident that the service they are performing for athletes with handicapping conditions is significant and needed. The rewards are sometimes more than being part of an effort which produces opportunities for participation in sport, excellent athletes, and near-miraculous achievements. Sometimes, the rewards are greater, as was enunciated by Eunice Kennedy Shriver in summing up the goals and purposes of the Special Olympics:

> "We honor Roberta Cameron, who, though she was leading her race, stopped to pick up a fallen friend."

ORGANIZATIONS

Outlined below are some of the major organizations conducting athletic programs for those with handicapping conditions in this country.[2]

American Athletic Association for the Deaf (AAAD)

AAAD was founded in 1945. It sponsors programs for its approximately 15,000 members through its 120 member clubs. The clubs are divided into seven geographic regions, each with its own President, Vice President and Secretary-Treasurer.

AAAD sanctions and promotes state, regional and national basketball, softball and volleyball tournaments, as well as international competitions held under the auspices of the Comite International des Sports Silencieux (International Committee of Silent Sports). AAAD also prepares qualified hearing-impaired athletes for competition in the quadrennial International Games for the Deaf, or "Deaf Olympics," in which athletes from some 42 nations compete. The next Summer Games will be held in Bucharest, Romania, in 1977. Trials for this event are held one year in advance to allow adequate time to raise funds for the trip.

Funding for AAAD comes from dues paid by member clubs. However, athletes who qualify to compete in regional, national and international competition must finance their own trips. In the past, local clubs have encouraged their communities to raise the necessary funds to send member athletes to major events. While such fund-raising efforts have generally been successful, officials for AAAD and for the International Committee of Silent Sports have told the Commission that they would prefer a more stable and reliable source of funding for future events.

American Blind Bowling Association (ABBA)

ABBA was founded in 1951 by a group of blind bowlers in the Philadelphia and New York areas who felt that a national organization was needed to publicize and promote the sport for blind persons. ABBA is the official sanctioning body for blind tenpin bowlers and blind bowling leagues in the U.S. and Canada. Each year, it sponsors a National Championship Blind Bowling Tournament in a different American or Canadian city. Participants are drawn from the eight to thirty leagues within various Blind Bowling Associations located throughout the U.S. and Canada. As with deaf competitors, blind bowlers must finance their own trips to such events. Each bowler also pays dues, as well as his own tournament entry fees.

Rules for blind bowlers are the same as those for their sighted counterparts. A 15-foot guide rail is used in all national competitions. However, bowlers are free to use any approach they desire.

A new organization, the American Association of Blind Athletes (AABA), was founded in 1976. Patterned after AAAD, this group will initiate a series of regional competitions in a number of sports beginning in March, 1977. Regularly scheduled international competitions are also planned. Various state schools for the blind also conduct competitions in numerous sports.

National Wheelchair Athletic Association (NWAA)

NWAA was founded in 1958, following the first National Wheelchair Games in the U.S. These games were patterned after the Stoke Mandeville Games for the Paralyzed, which began in 1948 at Stoke Mandeville, England. The U.S. Games, however introduced for the first time the 60-, 100- and 220-yard dash on a macadam race track, as well as the 220- and 400-yard shuttle relay. Since then, other events have been added, including the discus and the slalom, an intricate obstacle course run against time.

NWAA governs all wheelchair sports in the U.S. except basketball and consists of a membership of approximately 2,500. Those participating in wheelchair sports, however, number over 15,000. Membership is open to men and women athletes with significant permanent disability (spinal disorder, poliomyelitis, amputation) who would be unable to compete without using a wheelchair.

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[2] A complete listing of all such organizations can be found in *Competitive Athletic Programs for Impaired, Disabled, and Handicapped Persons*, published by the American Alliance of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

NWAA is governed by the National Wheelchair Athletic Committee (NWAC), which consists of 12 members, each of whom is elected for a four-year term, and additional members who represent regional sports groups. NWAC is headed by a chairman and includes a Medical Advisory Board, as well as various sub-committees.

NWAA has 13 regional areas. Annual regional meets are held to determine qualifiers for the National Wheelchair Games, which include competitions in track and field, swimming, archery, table tennis, lawn bowling, and weightlifting. National champions and other qualifiers are selected for the U.S. team which competes in the annual Stoke Mandeville Games, the Pan American Games (held every two years), or the Olympiad for the Physically Disabled (conducted every four years).

The standard national rules of each sport are used as the guide for minimal adaptations for wheelchair sports. Adaptations are only made to allow for: (a) use of a wheelchair; (b) safety of the participant; and (c) different degrees of disability of the participants. Athletes are grouped under one of seven medical classifications for the purpose of determining their level of muscular function. This grouping allows fair competition against those with similar degrees of disability. The Medical Advisory Board is responsible for classifying the wheelchair athlete at National Games and advises NWAC on design and development of a classification system.

The United States Wheelchair Sports Fund, an organization founded by individuals administering NWAA, raises and administers funds to sponsor physically disabled athletes in international competition and provides the major portion of funds for international events. However, funds are in short supply, and individuals and teams must finance their own transportation and related expenses. NWAA dues and registration fees for various events are the only other sources of revenue.

National Wheelchair Basketball Association (NWBA)

NWBA is another prominent wheelchair sports organization, although it is not affiliated with NWAA. Wheelchair basketball began about 1946 at Veterans Administration Hospitals. In 1948 there were six U.S. wheelchair basketball teams, all members of the Paralyzed Veterans of America and all functioning from VA Hospitals. In April 1949 a group of students from the University of Ilinois, working under the Director of Rehabilitation, formed the first National Wheelchair Basketball Tournament. NWBA was formed in the same year and has since grown to 110 teams in 20 conferences.

Special Olympics, Inc.

Special Olympics, Inc., is the organization responsible for the Special Olympics, a year-round operation of athletic programs for the mentally retarded. Funded in large part by the Joseph P. Kennedy, Jr. Foundation, Special Olympics has grown since 1968 to a position of prominence in this country and abroad. Presently, over 600,000 mentally retarded individuals of all ages participate in this program, representing every state of the U. S., the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and 16 other nations. Special Olympics has reached a level of financial independence unique among organizations of its kind, receiving $1.4 million annually from the Kennedy Foundation and $2.5 million in contributions. In spite of its major advances, however, officials estimate that they have involved only 15 to 25% of all mentally retarded Americans in Special Olympics programs and only 1% worldwide.

Special Olympics sports and events are divided into two categories:

—*Official Special Olympics Sports and Events:* Official sports are selected because they can be performed by the greatest number of individuals; they can provide the greatest physical, mental, psychological and social benefit to participants; and they are most readily coached. All official Special Olympics sports are included in the International Games. They include basketball, bowling, swimming, one-meter diving, gymnastics, ice skating, track and field, volleyball and wheelchair events.

—*Demonstration Sports and Events:* Demonstration sports and event are activities that help to develop the necessary agility, stamina, strength, endurance and flexibility needed for participation in official Special Olympics sports. Demonstration sports and events include: badminton, cross country, field hockey, golf, dance, soccer, softball, tennis and touch football.

Levels of participation include:

—*Local and Area Games:* Scheduled in communities during the early spring. In 1976 over 700 Area Games and thousands of local meets were held.

—*Chapter Games:* Usually scheduled in the late spring and early summer for competitors who have qualified through local and area meets. In 1976 over 80,000 competitors participated in the Chapter Games scheduled in every state and the District of Columbia.

—*National Games:* Scheduled as appropriate by the national organizations responsible for Special Olympics. The cost of transportation is a major consideration when determining whether to have National Games each year or to have competition stop at the chapter level. In 1976, eight nations held National Games.

—*Special Olympics Games:* Conducted internationally under the sanction of Special Olympics, Inc. These games consist of competitions in track and field, swimming, gymnastics, basketball, volleyball, floor hockey, bowling, ice skating, wheelchair events and other sports. Another feature of the Games is sports clinics on a variety of activities, conducted by professional and amateur athletes. In 1975, over 3,000 athletes, each of whom had won the right to compete in local, area, regional and national meets and tournaments, participated in the Fourth International Games. In some of the participating nations, the effort by the national governments to send their qualified athletes to the Special Olympic Games represented their first attempt to assist their own mentally retarded.

ORGANIZATIONAL PROBLEMS AND ISSUES

Organizations such as the Special Olympics, NWAA, ABBA and AAAD were created to provide opportunities for physical development and athletic participation for groups of Americans who had previously received little or no attention from the rest of the sports community, but who, it was believed, could profit from the athletic experience. The success of these programs, coupled with the achievements of some of their participants, have brought them deserved recognition from many quarters.

Negative Public Attitude

Still, there is a tendency on the part of the American public not to regard these groups and individuals as involved in sports. All too often, events such as the Deaf Olympics or the Stoke Mandeville Games are categorized as therapeutic, or as rehabilitation programs, rather than what they really are—competitions consisting of gifted, well-trained athletes.

An example of this attitude can be found in attempts to obtain media coverage of the 1975 Winter Games of the International Committee of Silent Sports in Lake Placid, New York. Although some of the world's best deaf athletes were participating, Games officials were not able to attract significant media attention or support. One major sports publication allegedly advised Games officials that its reporters would not cover the event, saying, "This is not sports. We are concerned only with competitive sports."

To be sure, some programs such as the Special Olympics (which does receive adequate media support) take pride in the fact that thousands of individuals who were never able to participate in athletics are now involved. Since the opportunity to participate is a major reason why the Special Olympics were created, the emphasis on winning and on development of "elite athletes" is secondary. Nevertheless, Special Olympics, as well as other sports programs for the handicapped, welcome the chance to develop their participants to the point where competition with able-bodied athletes is possible.

Negative Attitude Shared by Handicapped

The negative attitude of the general public is often shared by the physically handicapped and mentally retarded, many of whom look with disfavor or apathy on efforts to encourage their involvement in sports. While such efforts are not intended to raise false hopes or to dismiss the gravity of their handicap, those who participate and do well demonstrate that the desire to excel at any activity, at any level of proficiency, is not limited by one's physical or mental condition. Those who qualify to enter various international events are an example for those who have not attained this degree of excellence, just as able-bodied Olympic and Pan American competitors are an inspiration to less accomplished athletes.

Funding Problems

The lack of publicity for and general understanding of the meaning or intent of athletic programs for the handicapped is a primary cause of many other problems standing in the way of their sustained growth. Funding for programs and activities at all levels presents serious problems for the administrator. Lack of sufficient funds has inhibited the growth of programs and the ability to attract full-time qualified physical education instructors and therapeutic recreation personnel. Of the groups discussed above, only the Special Olympics can afford a full-time, paid staff.

Athletes also face money problems, particularly as they advance toward elite-level competition. In most cases, finding funds for their transportation and equipment is their own responsibility. Quite often, their expenses are more than those for their able-bodied colleagues, because special consideration must be given to compensate for their handicapping conditions. If an effort is made to raise funds for these athletes through contributions (as has been the case in funding teams for the Deaf Olympics), indifference or apathy may be encountered simply because the activity in which they are taking part is not well known or publicized.

Coaching Problems

Athletes and the organizations sponsoring their activities also face serious difficulties in obtaining adequate coaching for beginning athletes, as well as for those who have the potential to advance to higher levels of competition. No reliable figures exist on the number of qualified coaches and trainers for the handicapped. Most who coach able-bodied athletes are not trained to deal with the problems of training the handicapped or the mentally retarded, and there are few career opportunities or certification programs in this area. Therefore, much of the coaching which the handicapped receive is done on a volunteer basis, and serious athletes are often forced to develop their talents without the benefits of expert coaching by qualified physical education instructors and therapeutic recreation personnel.

Lack of Cooperation

Some of the problems facing organizations offering sports programs to special populations are caused by the organizations themselves. There is, in many instances, little cooperation, coordination, or communication among these groups. In some cases, there is little communication between groups serving the same populations. This lack of awareness, which is also apparent among sports organizations offering programs for the able-bodied, can result in such drawbacks as not having sufficient information on a new adaptive or prosthetic device which enhances the abilities of a physically handicapped individual in a given sport. Lack of communication also isolates individuals and groups, leading them to believe that not enough effort is being made in their behalf, when these beliefs may not be justified. Finally, failure to communicate and coordinate can result in duplications of effort, as well as competition for funding and facilities.

This seeming lack of community identity may be the cause of another problem, i.e., the uneven development of many programs. This is perhaps best demonstrated by the fact that the Special Olympics has made excellent use of the word "Olympic." It was given permission to use this word by the U. S. Olympic Committee (USOC), with certain limiting conditions. On the other hand, the American Athletic Association of the Deaf has been a dues-paying member of the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) for over 20 years. Yet the AAAD has not been able to take full advantage of its status to seek assistance from the AAU during that time. Nor has the AAU been forthcoming in any offers of support, with the exception of individual members who volunteer to officiate and otherwise assist at various events. While this illustration is not meant to suggest that athletic programs for the deaf have been any less successful in meeting their goals than the Special Olympics, it does indicate that some organizations have been more successful in exploiting their contacts with the amateur sports community than others.

There have been efforts to assist organizations providing athletic programs for the handicapped by national governing bodies, major multi-sport organizations and the school/college community. But these have often been inadequate. The potential role of such organizations in assuring the continued development of these programs is significant. Only they can provide the facilities, the coaches, the administrative expertise and the publicity necessary for success. One reason for their lack of total commitment is traceable to the general attitude of the public that sports programs for the handicapped come more under the category of rehabilitation than sport. Another reason is that there are often not enough funds or other resources to provide the desired degree of assistance to these groups, and that priorities must be established elsewhere. Other reasons offered, particularly in the case of the mentally retarded, are that without proper supervision they could be hurt; that they could not learn the rules of safety; and that they might disturb or offend the sensibilities of others participating in the program.

Fortunately, attitudes, at least in some areas, are changing. Some state high school associations allow the handicapped to compete in interscholastic athletic programs. The USOC *has* helped the Special Olympics by allowing it to use its name. The AAU *has* helped wheelchair sports in development of such activities as weightlifting. Volunteer athletes, coaches and trainers *have* approached organizations such as Special Olympics with offers of assistance. Even professional sports organizations have been of assistance.

New Laws

Perhaps the most significant sign that public perceptions are changing is new federal laws. One such law is the Education of All Handicapped Children Act (20 U.S.C. 1415), which provides special funding to ensure inclusion of physical recreation and education programs as a defined part of special education.

The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (29 U.S.C. 706), as amended, is the first major statutory civil rights enactment designed specifically to protect the rights of handicapped persons. Section 504 of this act states that no person, by reason of his handicap, may be denied the benefits of or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance. The language of this act is almost identical to the non-discrimination provisions of Section 601 of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Section 901 of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, which is the focus of discussion in the chapter on women in sports. Conceptually, Section 504 is distinguished from both Title VI and Title IX. These latter two acts are based on the premise that there are no inherent differences or inequities between the general public and the persons protected by these statutes. Therefore, there should be no differential treatment in the administration of federal programs. However, handicapped persons may require special treatment to obtain equal access to programs and activities that are federally assisted. Identical treatment may not produce the Congressionally-mandated result. The solution is further complicated because of the variation in types and degrees of handicaps.

The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is required to implement a general enforcement plan and has issued proposed guidelines to put the plan into effect. One of the most difficult issues concerns the need to weigh competing equities while resolving complex problems such as adequate financial support.[3]

Two sections of the Rehabilitation Act specifically apply to physical education and athletics. One section applies to pre-school, elementary or secondary educational institutions which receive federal funds. The second applies to post-secondary institutions including vocational training programs. These sections provide that a recipient may not discriminate on the basis of a handicap in providing physical education and other athletic programs and activities to any of its students. Under this law, a recipient offering physical education courses or interscholastic, club or intramural athletics must provide handicapped students equal opportunity for comparable participation in these activities. The law also states that physical education and athletic activities offered to handicapped students may not be separate or different from those offered to non-handicapped students. However, where the "most normal setting feasible" can neither insure health and safety for all students, nor properly meet their needs, separation and differentiation are permissable.

It should be noted that none of these measures is intended to force the handicapped person into a situation, particularly in competitive sports, where their handicapping condition would give others a clear advantage. Nor does it indicate support for the assimilation of organizations such as the NWAA or Special Olympics into other sports organizations. Rather, these examples of changing attitudes reflect a growing awareness that increasing numbers of disabled citizens are seeking a meaningful role in the mainstream of American society, and that if their skills compare favorably with their able-bodied contemporaries, they should have the opportunity to participate at any level of achievement they can attain.

Finally, federal laws (as well as statutes in some states and localities) require that any new construction or renovation using federal funds must have barrier-free access. This requirement will undoubtedly have far-reaching consequences, allowing those with handicapping conditions to use gymnasiums, civic centers, swimming pools, and other sport and recreational facilities.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Most of the Commission's report deals with a class of athletes and organizations which all casual readers of the sports page know exist and about which the American public has a general understanding. However, this chapter of the report, together with its companion chapter in Volume I, deals with a sector of the amateur sports community neither generally known nor appreciated.

In reviewing this chapter, at least two major themes need to be emphasized:

—The programs discussed here deal with organizations and individuals involved in sports programs. Those who compete in them consider themselves athletes, not passive participants in a therapeutic or rehabilitative program.

— Most of the organizations discussed in this chapter share many problems and difficulties. Some of these are unique to the populations they serve, but some are common to many other sports organizations. Additionally, many of the athletes with handicapping conditions share many problems and desires with their able-bodied contemporaries.

In essence, continued growth of sports programs for the handicapped is dependent on organizations such as those discussed in this chapter:

—Seeking more assistance from national governing bodies, major multi-sport organizations, industry, and the school/college community in the development of their own programs;

—Joining together, if such a union is desired, in the development of a communications network, designed to assure common knowledge of problems and accomplishments. A common strategy with regard to such efforts as fund raising, use of facilities, attraction of more participants, and sharing of medical information, is also needed; and

—Ensuring fair implementation of new laws designed in part to assist handicapped athletes in such areas as the training of coaching personnel and barrier-free access to athletic facilities constructed with federal funds.

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[3] At the time this report went to press, regulations implementing this law had not been approved. However, proposed regulations had been published for comment. While supporting the general thrust of the law and the regulations, educational groups, including the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), questioned their scope, arguing that the costs and additional responsibilities connected with total compliance would be prohibitive. Final regulations were scheduled to be issued in early January, 1977.

There is so much that outside groups can do to help the sports organizations discussed in this chapter to meet these objectives.

For example:

—National governing bodies can seek their membership and devote more resources to developing programs and opportunities for the handicapped. In addition, some rules governing competition could be reviewed, to allow the inclusion of qualified handicapped athletes.

—The school/college community can provide access to their facilities, consistent with new federal laws and with the needs of their own programs.

—The media can give competitions and the programs themselves more exposure.

Effectively incorporating handicapped athletes into the mainstream of amateur sports will not be an easy task. But in making the attempt, leaders of programs for the handicapped, as well as leaders of other groups in a position to offer assistance, should take note of the remarkable achievements athletes with handicapping conditions have managed under the present system. If there is general agreement that the country should offer all citizens the opportunity to compete at whatever level their skills and desires permit, we ought, then, to pause on our way to fielding an Olympic team or filling a football stadium, and — like Roberta Cameron — assist a friend.

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